

Thirtieth Annual Convention

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF PROFESSIONAL WOMEN

DECEMBER 10 - 12, 1910

CHICAGO, ILL.

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VOLUME 10

Service of the National Association of Professional Women

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

DISCUSSION GROUPS

(See April issue for the first part of Proceedings.)

Monday, February 28, 1949

GROUP XII—How Can We Admini In-service Education Programs Through W hops?	
Issue presented by.....	T. D. Rice..... 3 F. S. Stafford..... 8
GROUP XIII—How Should Administrators Deal With School Fraternities and Sororities?	
Issue presented by.....	L. E. Vredevoe..... 15 C. E. Drake..... 21
GROUP XIV—Federal Aid to Education	
Issue presented by.....	Ernest Giddings..... 27 C. D. Long..... 33

Tuesday, March 1, 1949

GROUP I—How Can the Experienced-Centered Curriculum Be Developed?	
Issue presented by.....	Will French..... 42 T. H. Broad..... 42
GROUP II—What Programs for the Slow Learner?	
Issue presented by.....	Leon Mones..... 47 Mrs. H. H. Levisohn..... 58
GROUP III—How Can Consumer Education Improve Our Instructional Program?	
Issue presented by.....	J. H. Shantz..... 65 R. T. Stickler..... 69
GROUP IV—What Spiritual Values Should Be Included in the Secondary-School Program	
Issue presented by.....	J. W. Wilson..... 71 C. W. Allison..... 83
GROUP V—What Is a Functional Program for the Junior High School?	
Issue presented by.....	F. F. Long..... 88 M. E. Herriott..... 95

(Continued on page 2)

TABLE OF CONTENTS.—Continued from Page 1

GROUP VI—What Are the Current Trends in Junior College Education?	
Issue presented by.....	W. R. Wood.....108
	J. W. Harbeson.....115
GROUP VII—How Can We Develop Effective Citizenship Through the Student Council?	
Issue presented by.....	G. M. Van Pool.....122
	A. R. Meier.....128
GROUP VIII—What Devices for Recognizing and Encouraging Student Achievement?	
Issue presented by.....	R. B. Norman.....134
	M. M. Mansperger.....139
GROUP IX—Trends in Guidance Service for Modern Youth	
Issue presented by.....	L. M. Miller.....145
	A. H. Mennes.....155
	Lt. Com. R. B. Lowe.....161
GROUP X—How Satisfactory Are Current Policies and Practices for College Admission?	
Issue presented by.....	L. W. Nelson.....162
	W. K. Selden.....167
GROUP XI—How Can We Meet the Administrative Problems of the Small High School?	
Issue presented by.....	W. H. Gaumnitz.....173
	R. E. Langfitt.....178
GROUP XII—What Are Acceptable Standards for Interscholastic Athletics?	
Issue presented by.....	J. K. Archer.....185
	H. V. Porter.....189
GROUP XIII—What Is a Good Program of Public Relations for the Secondary School?	
Issue presented by.....	L. W. Kindred.....196
	R. G. Chamberlin.....201
GROUP XIV—What Are the Trends in Planning and Constructing Junior and Senior High-School Buildings and Plants?	
Issue presented by.....	L. B. Perkins.....207
	J. G. Fowlkes.....214
News Notes	218
Book Column	230

(See April, 1949, issue for the first part of Proceedings.)

THE CONTENTS OF THIS BULLETIN ARE LISTED IN "EDUCATION INDEX"

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THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

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*Proceedings of the
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February 26 to March 2, 1949

Due to the large number of participants on the program of the Thirty-third Annual Convention of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, the Proceedings appear as two volumes. This issue of THE BULLETIN, which is the second volume, is a continuation of the Proceedings appearing in the April, 1949, issue of THE BULLETIN. Thus, the April and May, 1949, issues of THE BULLETIN present the complete Proceedings of the Thirty-third Annual Convention of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals.

Group XII—Parlor L

CHAIRMAN: *Mary Jane Wyland*, Professor of Education, School of Education, Pennsylvania State College, State College, Pennsylvania

How Can We Administer In-service Education Programs
Through Workshops?

THEODORE D. RICE

THE problem of administering in-service education programs through workshops depends primarily on what is meant in the local setting by the term "in-service education." If certain assumptions with regard to in-service education are made it may clarify approaches to administering

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in-service education through workshops. For example, a desirable assumption is that in-service education is a part of an integral program of the school system and is recognized by the Board of Education as a continuing responsibility of teachers for their own professional enrichment. Another desirable assumption is that the in-service education program is widely defined to include work in higher institutions, work on jobs in school systems, work experience outside education itself, travel and rest. Finally, it is desirable to assume that the in-service education program has been developed out of a co-operative pattern of thinking together by representatives of the teaching staff and administration and the Board of Education. It is necessary to make this last assumption so far as workshops are concerned for it is difficult to conceive of teachers voluntarily seeking to identify and deal with problems under conditions beyond their control. In other words, the means of arriving at the bases for in-service education takes priority over the kinds of in-service patterns which might be set up.

The workshop is one of the effective procedures for in-service education. There are many kinds of workshops which have come into the educational picture since the original one which was held in 1936-37 under the Progressive Education Association. Some of the procedures prior to that particular workshop development were work groups in school systems to develop courses of study and syllabi or to meet other special assignments. Some of these were highly formal, others greatly limited in scope. In higher education, besides institutes and department and faculty meetings there were summer schools and seminars. In some places special summer programs and institutes were renamed workshops when the workshop movement spread widely through the country. The workshop movement, however, has considerably greater significance than that of special work group assignments either on seminar topics or on the preparation of school system materials. As workshops have developed throughout the country since that time they have taken on several characteristics worthy of note. (1) They are sponsored by county, state or local school systems, and in some cases also local or national institutions of higher education. (2) Staff members designated from the school system share with staff members from the higher institutions, and elsewhere, in planning and working with participants on their problems. (3) The problems and resources in the workshop reflect the concerns of the school system or of the region in which the workshop is held. (4) Frequently school teams attend the workshop to deal with problems unique with their own school. (5) The workshop membership is made up of teachers and administrators, service personnel and sometimes community representatives. Consequently it is a cross-section of school and community living rather

than a group of principals or teachers from an individual department. (6) The workshop is housed in a setting in which opportunity is provided for work groups to meet informally in rooms with movable furniture, but it also provides opportunity for work groups to meet together in general sessions, to use audio and visual aids, art-crafts, and recreation facilities. Many such workshops provide also for lunch together as a further means of giving school personnel an opportunity to know each other. (7) Procedures used in the workshop, as implied in the first of the statements of characteristics, are such that persons are increasingly given opportunity to become acquainted with each other and to share responsibilities and experiences. (8) The distinction between the staff and the workshop membership is difficult to draw in a group in which the problems of the school system are given prior consideration to the provision of time for lectures or discussions by staff members. The procedures, then, are those of planning, working and sharing together, and of defining directions out of such co-operative patterns of interaction.

UNDERLYING POLICIES

With that background with regard to the setting in which an in-service education program may be operating and with regard to characteristics which appear to be desirable in workshops, let us turn briefly to give consideration to policies which should underlie a constructive in-service education program in a school system. In the main these policies need not be elaborated, but certain are basic. One of the policies is that persons affected by policies should participate in their formulation, execution and evaluation. The second policy which should underlie in-service education is that of local responsibility for the school program. If a school system is subject to state department regulation to an extent beyond legal requirements or if an individual school is subject to city-wide regulations to the place that it cannot adapt its program in terms of the unique characteristics of the community, then the principal and the faculty are limited in functioning as professionals and become, rather, technicians to implement rulings and recommendations defined outside their own situation. An in-service education program for technicians would be in the line of production and implementation of already decided professional plans. An in-service education for professionals would be in terms of the basic concepts of learning the community setting and the attendant situations in which technical competence of a staff would be applied. The assumption in these comments is that a teaching group is a professional group and therefore should have the responsibility for making decisions with regard to their own professional growth and with regard to the nature of the program with which they are to work.

Given these two basic policies, how do workshops relate to in-service education programs? Type one is the workshop offered without primary reference to school system interests. This could be a workshop held on a university campus, designed as nearly as possible to meet characteristics such as those listed above, and offering invitations to school systems to send individual teachers or groups of teachers to participate in the workshop. Type two might be a similar workshop under the same general circumstances and limitations, operating co-operatively with institutions in a region in which a school system is functioning. Here again the workshop staff would find itself confronted with the necessity of dealing with problems of various school faculties and individual teachers or administrators from any part of the region which is served by the workshop. The third type of workshop is that which is set up by a local school system or a group of schools in an immediate area. Such a workshop would be staffed and planned within the school system or systems to deal with problems of concern within the co-operating groups. The staff might be from co-operating institutions and thus arrange for advanced credits, but the primary criterion would be in terms of the needs of the schools and school system themselves. It is in this latter type of workshop that a school-system defined in-service education program offers the greatest possibility. It assumes, however, that there are provisions for time for planning in schools in order that school principals and teachers together can lay the basis for the offerings in the workshop and the kind of staff and resources necessary. The possibilities for continued follow-up from a workshop are much greater in this type of setting. School systems such as Philadelphia, Minneapolis, Denver, Oklahoma City, Springfield (Missouri) and county groups set up such working patterns for periods of from a month to six or eight weeks.

PROBLEMS IN APPROACH

Certain problems must be considered in this approach to in-service education. (1) How can university sponsorship or credit be sought or attained? Is it necessary? Would the staff be helpful? (2) Will the Board of Education finance a locally determined professional enrichment program? (3) Will provision be made early enough so that a faculty with its principal can plan how it will take part in the workshop? (4) Will decisions with regard to a professional enrichment summer program be made early enough so that competent supplementary staff can be brought in to work with the schools? (5) Will there be arrangement, co-operatively with other school systems or by general announcement, whereby teachers and administrators from some other school system may also enroll in the workshop? This latter point is desirable because there is hazard that a locally operated workshop might be an inbred or ingrown program unless there are some persons

exchanging experiences as from another locality. (6) Will the workshop program be such that teachers and administrators actually have opportunity to work closely together and to establish patterns of interaction which would carry on into the following year? (7) Will the individual administrators in schools represented by the workshop make plans with their teachers as to the nature of the follow-up during the coming year?

ROLE OF THE PRINCIPAL

Such questions themselves offer a clue as to the role of the principal in administering in-service education programs through workshops. It would be important that the principal think with other principals and the central office administration as to the possibility of summer workshops and the ways in which his staff might have their needs met, in part at least, through the workshop. Second, the principal should do all he can to join with teachers in his school in an active way in order that the workshop be best used. Insofar as possible, persons who participate should have had opportunity to think through how they might use the workshop and to think with other staff members of the sorts of needs which the school system or the individual school feels in order that the workshop's resources may be used to deal with such needs. A further aspect of the role of the principal with regard to the administration of such a program is of peculiar importance in the secondary school. It would be very difficult for a school system to provide specialists to service the ten or twelve departments of the typical secondary school in operating a workshop. On the other hand, we all know that the average secondary teacher thinks in terms of professional enrichment within a given subject field rather than in terms of general education or in terms of social competence necessary to deal with problems of youth in our times. Consequently the principal has a continuing obligation to assist his faculty to think of how they might use resources in the form of specialists in community work, in general education, in social psychology, in problems of guidance and youth adjustment. The principal is a teacher educator who must help teachers who are already in fact specialists within their subject fields to broaden their competency and use their subject fields more effectively in helping youth contribute to community improvement. Fundamentally this phase of the question opens the entire issue as to what a workshop is for. If the school system is seeking to deal with the problems of life adjustment of its youth and to relate its program to the characteristics of its community, then a general education workshop is pertinent and relevant. If a school is seeking to articulate the various branches of the school program, then the school workshop would be helpful. If, on the other hand, the school is seeking to develop special courses of study or syllabi within specific departments or to improve strictly departmental instruction programs,

perhaps the better way would be to choose a specialist or to send teachers to those centers where such specialties are offered.

THE PLACE OF WORKSHOPS IN SECONDARY EDUCATION

The foregoing remarks indicate a point of view which is held as to the place of workshops with regard to secondary education. Imperative needs of youth are those needs which transcend established departmental organization of secondary schools. Therefore our in-service education program should be designed to assist teachers in developing the skills and insights necessary to move in the directions implied by these needs. The workshop approach offers one of the important routes whereby such in-service education may be carried out.

How Can We Administer In-service Education Programs Through Workshops?

FRANK S. STAFFORD

WORKSHOPS or work conferences are increasing in popularity as a method of in-service teacher education. There are many reasons for this increasing interest. Thinking people are no longer satisfied with the old type convention or conference. People are demanding that conferences produce real results. Most people welcome the opportunity to participate in solving their own problems in contrast to the typical conference at which the participants sit passively listening to others think and make decisions for them.

An educational workshop is a meeting or conference where responsible and experienced people can come together to work with specialists and consultants on interests and problems with which they have been confronted in their work, and which they find difficult to solve alone. Working groups are organized around these interests or problems to provide an opportunity for groups of people to determine, consider, diagnose, and solve these common problems.

When individuals with different backgrounds meet to study common problems, it is to be expected that differences in thinking may exist. However, as they work together, these differences will insure that all angles will be explored. A danger lies in the fact that merely bringing people together to discuss does not necessarily insure quality or production. Some one has said that it may merely result in a polling of ignorance. Some people are also likely to think that due to the fact that they had an opportunity of talking about a problem, the problem is solved. These are dangers that should be guarded against, but they are not necessarily inherent in a workshop.

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BASIC ATTITUDES

Before a workshop can be successfully set up, it is necessary to consider several problems. One of these deals with certain basic attitudes. Bradford¹ says that "these are, (a) that the planners of work conferences have implicit faith that people, with assistance in the process of developing group productivity, can reach a higher quality of thinking and decision making in groups than they can as individuals; (b) that "telling" is not necessarily the best or the only way of inducing change in others, and (c) that the important persons at a conference are the delegates. Teachers, resource persons, and consultants are servants to delegate groups. This latter attitude may seem to be in opposition to those conferences whose purpose seems to be to exalt the few."

PRACTICAL QUESTIONS

In addition to the above mentioned attitudes, such practical questions as the following should be answered: (1) what are the purposes of the workshop; (2) can these purposes be best pursued by workshop techniques; (3) who is the logical person or agency to sponsor it; (4) how will it be financed—are there to be scholarships, fellowships, stipends, or reimbursement for expenses; (5) who should initiate the planning; (6) what are the most desirable characteristics of a good environment; (7) is such a site available; (8) what are desirable group work facilities; (9) how long can participants make effective progress by group procedures; (10) will it be possible to give college credit for participation both on the graduate and the undergraduate level; (11) where can capable teachers and consultants be found.²

NEEDS AND PURPOSES

Before a workshop is definitely planned, the need to be served should be determined. The objective should be simply stated and those considering the workshop method should be thoroughly convinced that the application of group work techniques is the proper method to achieve the best possible solution to the problem or problems.

The real purpose of a workshop should be to find out, through democratic action, the truths about a problem or related problems. This will involve a comprehensive study of the problem by the participants and they must see the problems as their problems. The participants should be involved both before and during the workshop in the making of basic decisions. Only in this way can the workshop belong to the participants and the participants feel that the conference deals with their problem or problems. This means that the Agenda should be flexible rather than rigid so that changes in the program can be

¹ Bradford, Leland P. *Planning the Work-Group Conference*. Adult Education Bulletin, Vol. XII, No. 3, February 1948. pp. 68-73.

² Stafford, Frank S. *A Workshop is Democracy in Action*. Education, Vol. 68, No. 6, February 1948. pp. 366-372.

made whenever necessary. It also assures that no decisions can be made by the director or the consultants as to what the participants should think.

A good workshop will be planned with a view to assisting the participants to think straight about their problems. This means that each session has an important part in the total program and each should be planned in relation to the other sessions and their purposes. The planning should provide opportunity and assistance for the delegates to periodically evaluate both the conference processes and the product, to assure that continuous improvement in both may be possible. Bradford states that "work conferences should be designed to make possible a steady progress from problem selection to diagnosis; to solution decisions; to action.

It may be desirable to have a planning committee to plan the workshop. If possible, such a committee should be representative of all interests and groups to be involved. This will help to set the stage for future participation by offering a form of vicarious participation as each individual is able to recognize himself or his interests in the person of one or more of the committee members. A workshop will be successful only to the extent that the participants feel they have played a part in planning it or carrying it to completion, and to the extent that they really believe it is dealing with their problems.

OPERATION

The opening session should make it possible for the participants and the staff to reach basic understandings as to the purpose and direction of the workshop and the responsibilities of each for the kind and quality of group decisions needed. Such a session should attempt to describe the steps and stages of planning; to indicate that important decisions are yet to be made by the participants; to emphasize that the decisions which have been made by the staff are in the direction of planning services to aid in group thinking rather than to direct group thought. This session should also offer the group an opportunity to see all the problems selected by themselves for consideration and solution. This orientation should also include study of the problems involved in group productivity, such as the responsibilities the members need to accept, and the roles to be played by group leaders, recorders, observers, and consultants. It is very desirable that leadership training be provided for group leaders and for the recorders, observers and consultant if time will allow.

The productivity of a group is accelerated greatly by such training whether it be done previous to the workshop or in specifically planned or arranged sessions during the course of the workshop.

If time and space would permit, I would like to develop these specifically for each of the above named personnel. In setting up and directing a workshop, thorough study should be given to the tasks of each by the director, and

the participants should be acquainted with their respective duties at one of the early sessions.

Fundamental to successful workshop operation is an understanding of workshop methods by all leaders and participants. All administrators planning to use workshop techniques for in-service education should be familiar with such methods. Let us consider these methods for a few minutes and the responsibilities of both leaders and participants.

UNDERSTANDING WORKSHOP METHODS

At a workshop, experienced people come together to study problems of common concern. Working groups are organized around interests and problems. When individuals work together, it is to be expected that differences in thinking will exist. At first this may cause some confusion within the group. However, as work progresses participants learn to respect the ideas of others and to see their own ideas in a new perspective. To the extent that the problem is solved, the solution represents a consensus and the best thinking of the entire group. Workshops have some characteristics in common.

1. Working sessions are planned around the interests and problems identified by the participants. The problems selected by the group are delimited to such scope that successful progress can be made during the time available.
2. The organization of the workshop is flexible in order that group work may proceed in solving problems. There is no fixed program with lectures. Consultants are available for participation in group work and for individual conferences.
3. Although much of the work is done through small groups, general meetings serve such purposes as planning working sessions, sharing of experiences, learning about new developments of interest to the entire group, or gaining specific assistance relating to the problems selected for study.
4. Various resources, such as secretarial services and work materials, are available to facilitate progress in solving problems. The most significant resources are the members of the workshop group—participants and consultants.

RESPONSIBILITIES OF LEADERS AND PARTICIPANTS

The success of a lecture depends almost entirely upon the lecturer. On the other hand, the success of a working conference depends upon the contributions of both leader and participants. Both must work together toward the attainment of a common goal.

The leader's persistent task is to guide the discussion toward the solution of the problem at hand. His immediate task is to shape conditions so that friendly, democratic relationships are established. His function is to produce an emotional climate which will stimulate, encourage and free the others to make their fullest contributions. The leader must have a sincere interest in what each person says. He must guide the discussion so that there is a full, free interchange of opinion and thought. In leading a discussion, the following points may prove helpful:

1. A clear statement of the problem is vital. This should be done by the group.
2. If the problem is a comprehensive one, less difficulty will be experienced if it is analyzed into sub-problems.
3. Only relevant contributions should be considered. In rejecting irrelevant suggestions, however, the personality of the individual should be respected. The leader and the participants must do nothing which will cause a member of the group to "lose face."
4. Finish one point before moving on to another.
5. Most leaders and participants find the outlining of major points on a black-board useful.

Participants share the responsibility for the project with the leader. The success or failure is theirs as well as the leader's. The leader and the participants are dependent upon one another. The willingness of the more articulate members to control their own participation and to encourage the participation of others helps to create harmony. The group can function well only as each member freely shares his ideas with others. Group thinking progresses only as each member graciously subjects his ideas to the test of factual evidence. An open-minded objective attitude toward the opinions and experiences of others is vital. Each individual has a responsibility to the group. Participation should be pertinent, thoughtful, and relative to the problems of the group.

As each individual increasingly identifies his own purposes with group purposes, the group develops a strong unity and coherence. A feeling of "we-ness" among the members grows. When the leader and participants honestly give their best, the ultimate satisfaction comes with the recognition that the final solution of the problem represents the combined thinking of all.

To help participants and leaders understand the emotional problems that often arise in a workshop, the following psychological factors are listed:

1. It is difficult for most people to feel free in situations where a number of people with differences in training and experience work together toward common goals.
2. The leaders and conference participants have to work together to provide this security for all conference members. Some ways of doing this are:
 - a. To make sure that each person participating is recognized as an individual with a contribution to make which is important because he alone can make it.
 - b. To assume that the person participating is making his contribution sincerely in the light of his best understanding.
 - c. To receive all suggestions from group members with appreciation.
3. Report of Study made by California group attempting to understand why it was hard for them to work together indicated that members are motivated by three fears which are more or less difficult to overcome: (1) fear of criticism; (2) fear of infringement; and (3) fear of inadequacy.

4. Best way to overcome these is for the leader to keep the attention of the group focused upon the problem and to keep the group hunting for the ideas and suggestions of the individual members which may lead to a solution of the problem.
5. A group cannot work comfortably and effectively on a common problem unless the leader is able to establish a leader-group relationship that encourages each group member to do his best thinking. Relationships can be described and classified according to degrees of mutuality.
6. Lindeman has classified relationships on this basis under four headings:
 - a. The command-obey relationship. One person tells another person what to do and the other person does it without question. A one-way process. No one participating in the relationship learns much from the experience involved.
 - b. The relationship in which one person decides for another or others, but is willing to explain the reasons for his decision to those who must carry it out. Little, if any, learning is involved for the person or persons who simply assent. It is still a one-way process.
 - c. The relationship in which differences are adjusted by compromise. This is superior, from the standpoint of learning to relationships (a) and (b) because it is two-way. Differences in interests, attitudes, experiences and knowledge are recognized and brought out, and each person is prepared to give up something in order to reach a solution of the problem. The chief trouble with this relationship is that it limits creativeness. Instead of going further to find a solution that meets the needs of all concerned, participants stop at the point where each gives up something.
 - d. The relationship in which all participants respect and value the opinions of each other so highly that no solution to a common problem is considered satisfactory unless it recognizes and meets the needs of all concerned. Mary P. Follett sums up this last relationship when she writes, "To free the energies of the human spirit is the high potentiality of all human association."

CONCLUSIONS

In conclusion, let me offer the following:

1. Pre-conference planning should be very detailed.
 - a. Set up a tentative agenda in advance
 - b. Have participants submit problems for study previous to the workshop
 - c. Allow group to present additional problems at opening session
2. It is very important to have pre-planning and training of group leaders, recorders, observers, and consultants.
3. Group leaders must understand methods and workshop procedures.
4. Every one must understand workshop terminology. (group work, working group, etc.)
5. Leaders should have a thorough discussion of the workshop problem and understand
 - a. how to conduct meetings

- b. how to get started
 - c. how to keep on topic
 - d. what the problem is—and that every one know what it is
 - e. how to run on time—to get started and to stop on time
 - f. how to get participation from every one
6. All must understand that group work techniques include such points as:
 - a. that all are to take part
 - b. participation is informal
 - c. it is good to use a blackboard as writing helps to visualize and it aids in crystallizing thinking
 - d. have a short summary at the end of each session
 - e. how to use an adviser or expert
 - f. use peoples' words or terms
 - g. every one speaking should be heard
 7. People must learn how to get out of materials and experts the things they want.
 8. Behavior change involving a vested interest is much more difficult than when there is no vested interest.
 9. People must be dissatisfied with just getting an idea. The idea must become a part of them.
 10. The end result should be action, and workshop procedures enable a group to take the necessary steps to action. These steps may be summarized as follows:
 - a. Expression of gripes or ills
 - b. Diagnosis and statement of problem
 - c. Determination of treatment plan or methods of solution, and
 - d. Take action—carry out plan.

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Richard L. Henderson, Principal, Laboratory School, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois; and Ralph Van Hoesen, Associate Professor of Education, Division of Education, Michigan State College, East Lansing, Michigan, served as discussants.

Group XIII—Parliament Room

CHAIRMAN: *Charles F. Allen*, Executive Director, State Teacher Retirement System, Little Rock, Arkansas

How Should Administrators Deal With School Fraternities and Sororities?

LAWRENCE E. VREDEVOE

THE existence of sororities or fraternities in any high school indicates that they are serving some need. It is, therefore, important in the approach to the problem to analyze carefully what needs they are serving. One may be the need for social activity and may indicate the lack of a social program which should be offered by the school. Another need may be the opportunity to belong to a gang or group. Such gangs or groups may represent minorities, social or economic cliques of the student body. For example, in some schools where fraternities and sororities do exist, we find that certain of these groups restrict their membership to certain nationalities, color, race, or creed. In other schools, membership is restricted to individuals of certain economic and social home backgrounds within the community. Some of these may be the "upper uppers" or the "lower lowers." There are other groupings, and each school and community must first of all analyze the membership of these clubs and determine the need that these clubs serve. A question that each faculty, board of education, or parent group should ask is, "What need do they satisfy?" Do these clubs satisfy the gregarious instinct, or do they give evidence of the lack of an adequate social and extracurricular program of the school? Is there some other reason for their existence? Before we can say that they should or should not exist, a definite study should be made to determine the need and reason for their existence.

The second step in the approach to the program is to analyze the characteristics of a high-school fraternity or sorority. They provide an opportunity for the individual to identify himself with a small group which receives recognition through the following means:

1. Their restricted membership (Prestige)
2. Their closed meetings (Secrecy)
3. Their pins, sweaters, insignia (Identification with a group)
4. Their social affairs (Social recognition)
5. The support given individual members for school offices (Allegiance)
6. Their initiations (Adventure, fun, etc.)

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You will note that none of these in themselves is objectionable and whenever elimination of the sororities and fraternities is suggested, it is *sometimes* difficult to point out that any of these characteristics in themselves is detrimental to either the individual or the school. However, there is not one of these characteristics of the sororities or fraternities which could not be transferred to a school club or group. There is a sharp difference between a school organization and the sorority and fraternity. It is the distinct difference which must be kept constantly in mind not only by school people but also by parents and students. The primary difference between the school group and the fraternity and sorority is the principle of *exclusiveness and its undemocratic principle of selection*. No public school has a right to sponsor or permit the existence of any organization whose membership is not open to all who can qualify. It is not to be implied that every organization should be open to any individual who desires to join whenever he has the urge and to resign whenever he wishes. A club or any group within the school should establish its own standards within reason, regardless of how high the standard may be. But when a person has met these standards and can prove his qualifications, he should not need to fear the blackballing by any students or teachers. It would be absurd to say that anyone could join the Tankateers, a girls' swimming club. Naturally, the girl would need to meet the qualifications of demonstrating her ability to swim, dive, and float, as well as present a record of good conduct, citizenship, and perhaps scholarship. The boy desiring to join the German Club would need to have some knowledge of German to meet the qualifications. The boys or girls joining the Hi-Y or Y-Teen groups should be required to demonstrate that they are willing to live according to the standards established by the group. However, when these standards are met, every boy and girl should be assured that he would have an equal opportunity to become a member of such a group.

No public school in a democracy has a right to tolerate any group which places membership on any basis other than qualification, merit, and achievement. The only principle upon which a school can operate is "all for one, and one for all." That immediately eliminates the possibility of one brother being taken by a group and another rejected, or of witnessing little comrade groups during junior high school days being broken up when they reach high school because one has been taken by the select group and another rejected. It also eliminates the right of any group to set up its standards on any bases other than merit, qualification, and achievement for membership.

The right to the pin, the insignia, the pennant, the special dance, the club party, and other privileges should be extended only to those groups

which have the approval of the school and which are based upon the democratic principle of a fair opportunity to all. The requirements for groups not supported by the school should be supervised by a responsible, organized parent group to serve as a supervisor, and then only if provision for membership be clearly understood and defined. The need for other organizations should be met by an aggressive and progressive program of school parties, clubs, sports, and other extracurricular activities sponsored by the school or responsible community agency.

Do not plan to abolish undesirable organizations within the school and then expect a vacuum to remain. If the school is unwilling to provide for the social and leisure-time needs and activities of the boys and girls, the authorities should not be critical if the boys, girls, and the parents meet the need in their own way.

In dealing with this problem, it is important to keep in mind that each school has a local social pattern within which it must work. Conditions, circumstances, and people differ, and the way in which the problem is solved will depend upon these factors. Nevertheless, the problem should be faced squarely and an honest answer given to the constituents, parents, and students of any school.

CHRONOLOGY OF ABOLITION

Permit me to review briefly the events and circumstances relating to the abolition of sororities and fraternities in one community in the Midwest. It was my privilege to have been principal of that school from the fall of 1941 until February 1, 1948.

The community is a residential city of 70,000 people. It has three junior high schools with grades from the seventh through the ninth years and one senior high school with grades from the tenth through the twelfth years. In 1941 the enrollment of the senior high school was 2300 students and at present totals about 1800. Sororities and fraternities had existed for about thirty years with many of the school leaders holding membership. Although the clubs had begun originally as small social and natural neighborhood groups, primarily interested in fun and leisure-time activities, gradually the idea spread and soon many small clubs were competing for membership, prestige, and school offices. It was easy to detect at any athletic game where the fellow members of a player were by their loud applause of his achievements. Sometimes clubs would unite in backing each other's candidates for offices. Club members chided in the cafeteria, at games, and about the school.

If you were "in," you had arrived; if you were "out," you were of little count. The Hi-Y was composed of two chapters, and although their

standards were higher, they were also "closed" groups. It was more important to some to wear the insignia of their club than those of the school.

When a student became a member, he found it quite embarrassing to quit or rebel against the club leadership. This situation gradually became worse. In order to be accepted, a pupil did what the group wanted him to do, and after he belonged, he stayed in line. The school had no control and many of the parties, dances, and week-end affairs were poorly chaperoned or supervised. The clubs were powerful enough to unite and "make" or "break" any school activity.

Parents were dissatisfied but feared social repercussions against their children if they raised public objections. Many were helpless in trying to dissuade their children from joining because the clubs operated openly and little was done to discourage them. Parents who dared to "stand out" against them were embarrassed by the parents who thought that membership in a sorority or fraternity was necessary in order to be accepted socially.

An analysis of the situation disclosed three important facts. The first was that fraternities and sororities served the need for social activities which were lacking in the program of the school. Second, many of those who belonged desired something better but felt forced to join. Third, and not the least, was the fact that many leaders in the communities were willing to back any individual or group who dared to tackle the problem provided they would not be out in front if the attempt should fail.

It might also be said that there were many parents who would resist such an attempt because they fully realized that their children would not hold leadership in groups which did not depend upon money, family social status, and an automobile, but rather upon personal merit and achievement. Morals, scholarship, and school spirit suffered because of the leadership which had gained control of most of the clubs. Their parties, initiations, and week-end affairs, in many instances, gave the school a bad reputation.

A careful plan was made for their abolition. First, a social program was planned to meet the need, which would be superior to anything offered by the fraternities or sororities. Second, a definite program of publicity was organized which would give notice to all that these clubs were not approved by the school. Third, a counter offensive was started to remove control and power of the fraternities and sororities in school activities. Fourth, leaders of the unapproved groups were dealt with fearlessly whenever they attempted to interfere with the general welfare of the school. Fifth, a definite goal was set to strike the final blow to have them officially abolished when we were certain of three things: first, that the majority of the students would back the administration; second, that the

Board of Education would demonstrate their backing by unanimous action; and third, that the new social program would first prove its superiority in meeting the needs of the students in a social and extracurricular way. It was also hoped that improvement in scholarship, school spirit, and community backing would be evident.

When the general objectives and plans were completed, the program was put into operation. Students, parents, and community leaders were informed that the practice of "closed" membership and the undemocratic selection of members were contrary to the principles of a public high school in a democratic society. The general slogan of "all for one, and one for all" was widely used. Monthly school parties were planned. The first one was attended by 1700 students. Everyone co-operated, as it was important to make the first one successful. A dance floor was placed on the baseball diamond, lights were strung about the botanical gardens, a miniature golf course was constructed in the garden, and booths were erected. Everyone had an enjoyable time. The next party was scheduled for indoors, and then more problems arose. How could we compete with parties held at the country clubs and hotels? We had to make the school an attractive place. A large canopy purchased for the purpose of transforming the appearance of the room was drawn up inside the running track in the boy's gym. Now, decorating was easier, indirect lighting was possible, and a festive atmosphere was created in the "old" gymnasium. The girls' gymnasium was used for booths and games, and the swimming pool was opened for mixed groups. The first indoor party had one thousand present and school parties took a new place in the social life of the school. Each party was planned by students and teachers together. Members on the faculty were rotated so that everyone served on a committee at some party. One teacher was appointed to serve as social director. These parties are now an established part of the extracurricular program and attendance averages more than seven hundred. The annual Thanksgiving night dance of the fraternities was matched by a school victory ball in the Masonic Temple. The Christmas formal was matched by one under school auspices. Soon the fraternities and sororities were given second place socially, and after suffering severe losses at some of their parties, they offered to co-operate. Their co-operation was refused and their social program was matched party for party.

Another blow to their groups was the adoption of a policy that only the insignia of the school was permitted to be worn in and about the school. This was difficult to enforce, but the defiants were soon ready to recognize that the school and not outside groups would determine policies of administration. In all of these procedures, the students and faculty were co-operating. Gradually, it came to be recognized that it was not wise to advertise your

association with one of the unapproved groups. Letters to new students and parents clearly emphasized that fraternities and sororities were not approved, and students were urged not to participate.

A coat-of-arms was adopted by the students and teachers, and those entering the twelfth grade or graduates were permitted to wear it. This pin replaced the fraternity or sorority emblem. Teachers completing ten years of service were awarded these pins on Honor Day.

The Hi-Y groups opened their memberships to those who would meet certain standards and maintain them. The best leaders of the faculty were assigned as sponsors and assistants. Recognition was given them in every way possible. Soon the Friendship organization comprised of girls became the outstanding girls' club, and Hi-Y, the boys' group. Awards were made on the basis of participation in school clubs, activities, and sports as well as scholarship. Within two years it was no longer considered "smart" to join a fraternity or sorority and membership in them hit a new low.

School spirit, scholarship, discipline, parent support, and student interest improved. Constantly, fraternity and sorority members were harrassed and discouraged. Careful supervision at athletic games discouraged demonstration by groups, and it was considered wise not to be seen "hanging around" together because they might be identified as a group of undesirables.

School offices, appointments, honors, and recognition were gradually being awarded to those who backed the school program. It was no longer necessary to join a fraternity or sorority to be accepted socially in the school or community. At this time it was felt that the remnants of the old groups could be eliminated only by official action. The Board of Education prohibited membership in them after six months from date of notice. The same board also made it mandatory for each school to establish a satisfactory social program.

The arguments for the fraternities and sororities were greatly weakened. First, there was no longer a need for them socially. School clubs had increased to over forty in number; sports, to more than twenty-five; Hi-Y chapters, to nine; and Friendship membership, to over four hundred. Scholastic records of those not in the sorority and fraternity groups were superior to those holding membership. The large majority of students, parents, and community leaders were in favor of the new program and the abolition of the undesirable groups. The real determining factor in the successful abolition of the groups was the reaction of the student body. They gave the administration their backing because they wanted the new program to continue and were convinced that the best policy was "one for all, and all for one."

Naturally, a few tried to circumvent the board ruling and one or two groups had to be dealt with severely. Nevertheless, the greatest satisfaction

came in the voluntary surrender of books, minutes, and records, and in the united resignation by those members who represented the oldest, strongest, and most outstanding clubs. Their leadership was quickly followed by those of the newer and smaller groups.

Two years after the formal action by the Board of Education, the signs and evidence of the existence of any unapproved groups had disappeared. Some said that they had been driven underground. If that were true, we had no worry. As one student said "What fun is there belonging to something that doesn't dare to do anything publicly." Then, too, parents were convinced that the school was a better place since they had been abolished. Former members supported the school because of the progress which had been made in meeting the needs that the fraternities and sororities met, only in a better and more democratic way.

SUPPORT OF STUDENT BODY ESSENTIAL

The fundamental factor in abolishing fraternities and sororities from any high school is the support of the student body. Any board of education action, faculty decision, or legislative act is of little value if the student body does not support the administration and high school faculty. When the majority of the boys and girls are convinced that such clubs should be abolished and are willing to back such a movement, you can succeed. Without their support, you will fail.

Fraternities and sororities can be abolished. Nevertheless, something better must be substituted. It is not recommended to oust them unless the school and community are willing to meet the needs that they serve. The best defense is a strong offense.

How Should Administrators Deal With School Fraternities and Sororities?

C. ELWOOD DRAKE

OUR experience in the Newton High School during the past two or three years may give some suggestions for an answer to the question under discussion at this meeting. At least it presents an approach which may be possible in some communities.

For many years there had been fraternities and sororities among youth of high-school age in Newton. Several had Greek letter designations; one was known as the Sophomore Club. They were relatively small groups. Their total membership probably did not include more than ten or fifteen per cent of the total student body. Yet their influence was felt rather strongly

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in matters of student elections, support of social affairs and extracurricular activities, and general school morale. Many of the "big wheels" on the campus were members of these clubs.

There were many more girls in these clubs than boys. All such clubs were operated outside the school, generally in private homes. Their existence was continued in large part by fond parents who thought their offspring were being stamped with social approval by being affiliated with these groups. There were stories of tears being shed by girls who were not invited to membership in these "select" groups. Mothers occasionally bragged about the number of bids their daughters had received. There was much imitation of college groups in the teas and bid parties sponsored by these fraternities and sororities.

There was little direct evidence of fraternity pledging, initiation, and membership during the school hours on the school grounds. Occasionally some peculiar dress or hair-do was noted at initiation time, but such activities were pretty quickly "squelched" by school authorities when noted. Generally speaking, a visitor would not have been much aware of fraternity and sorority influence in our school life. It was at election time for student officers, or student selection of committee, cheerleaders, or play participants that fraternity and sorority solidarity played a strong part. Thus it was felt that one had to be a member of one of these "select" groups to attain a position of school prominence.

For years there had been a regulation in the Rules of the School Committee which stated "No pupil shall take part in establishing or maintaining, or shall be a member of, or solicit membership in any secret club or secret society or any chapter of a secret club or society, in any way identified with or attached to any school or schools." But the ruling was cloudy and indefinite. Everyone knew that fraternities and sororities existed and continued year after year with the blessing and sponsorship of some parents. Even the daughter of an excellent school committeeman was a president of a sorority. So there was little assurance that the School Committee would back the high school administration in directly outlawing fraternities and sororities or of penalizing members of them. For years it was well to let "sleeping dogs lie" as long as there were no objectionable overt acts on school premises.

OBJECTIONABLE CHARACTERISTICS

Nevertheless, we in the school administration did not like the undercover influence and activities of these groups. Complaints were often made to us about the thinly supervised week-end parties and dances, the beach parties, or the drinking activities of a few of the boys. As usual many adults in the public discredited high-school youth in general and complained of the failure of the school to teach character and discipline which would carry

over to Saturday night. Some of our truancies and forgery of notes and report cards could be directly attributed to the quality of ethical standards endorsed by some fraternity groups. In general these organizations just didn't do us much good. They were a nuisance and a small thorn in the flesh. They were hardly worth starting a community war over, and yet they were a handicap to us in reaching some of our desired school objectives. They were *undemocratic*; they fostered a caste system; they set group off against group; they gave minority groups a majority of power. They were *undercover*; they were secret societies with restricted membership not based on worth. They were *unethical* in some instances and fostered practices of social behavior which were undesired and distasteful to people of good moral standing. They had little virtue. They just did not fit into the pattern of desirable democratic teachings of our school.

PLAN OF GRADUAL ELIMINATION

For some time editorials had appeared in our school paper complaining of the powers and activities of these fraternity groups. It was pointed out that the school administration was opposed to fraternities and sororities and that the great majority of the students did not belong to them. The question was raised, therefore, as to why they should be permitted to continue in a school pledged to democratic ideals. Frequently editorials complained of the "cliques" which were running the school, the unhappiness which was caused to some pupils by failure of election to these "select" organizations, and the undemocratic characteristics of these groups. It was pointed out that the survival of these fraternities and sororities was for "social" purposes, which might better be met by membership and participation in the great variety of school activities.

The senior classes in Problems of Democracy occasionally raised questions about fraternities and sororities, the effect of strongly organized minority groups, and the undemocratic nature of secret societies. The school legislature once in a while would raise critical inquiries as to the place of these fraternity groups in our total picture of school morale. Such discussions were reflected in the editorials in the school paper. The faculty backed the great majority of the student body which was critical of the continued existence and power of fraternities and sororities. But not much happened because so many of the student leaders were members of these fraternity groups.

But through a combination of circumstances a group of class and school officers was elected in the spring of 1947 which had little or no interest in the continuation of fraternities and sororities. In fact, one or two officers were rather strongly opposed to the secret clubs. The president-elect of the next senior class had attended a regional conference of student councils at

which the undemocratic nature of fraternities and sororities in public high schools had been discussed. He had returned from the conference determined to assert leadership against them. He enlisted the support of the president-elect of the school legislature, the chairman-elect of the school Civics Board, and the editor-elect of the school yearbook. No one of these was a fraternity or sorority member, yet they were elected by a great majority of the student body and, as a group, carried a great amount of weight in guiding student opinion. They joined their energies to abolish fraternities and sororities.

Realizing that little could be done by appealing to the upper classes in the school this group proposed that they talk to the ninth graders in the four junior high schools which sent students to our high school. With the faculty adviser and the principal in the high school, they presented their plan to the superintendent of schools. He arranged for them to speak to a ninth grade assembly in each junior high school. This was late in the spring, just when the ninth graders were getting keyed up about going to senior high school.

The effect was rather powerful. The ninth graders saw before them four of the most important student officers in the senior high school. These four were all seniors. Here were four "big wheels" of high school life telling them that membership in fraternities and sororities was not necessary for social acceptability, for high school success. These four pointed out the undemocratic nature of secret societies, explained the relatively weak reasons for their existence, urged ninth graders not to be taken in by the glamour appeal of these secret groups. Instead they pointed out the many school activities in which all sophomores could participate with profit and fun.

When school opened in the fall of 1947 these four leaders worked with the faculty adviser and principal to call an assembly of all sophomores in the early weeks of the year. They invited to sit on the platform those new sophomores who had been the leaders of their student bodies in the four junior high schools the year before. Thus the total sophomore class saw on the platform at its first assembly several seniors who were in the most important campus positions, fifteen or twenty of their most influential friends who had been junior high school leaders, the principal of the high school, and the superintendent of schools. The senior student officers ran the assembly. They explained that the student government was going to back the administration in a move to eliminate fraternities and sororities. They stressed that fraternities and sororities were snobbish, that they tended to bring disrepute to the school by their actions, that they were working for the benefit of individuals and small groups instead of the general welfare of the whole school. They called on the principal and the superintendent

to state their stand against secret societies. These men commended the action taken by the student government. Therefore the sophomores right in the first weeks of senior high school had deeply impressed on them the fact that the administration, the faculty, and the campus student leaders were united against the continuation of fraternities and sororities. The student paper gave this assembly much publicity and backing, and the campaign was launched.

It was planned that fraternities and sororities would be eliminated gradually. By forbidding membership to one class at a time, these societies would be out of existence in three years. Therefore, in 1947-48 only sophomores were affected. All sophomore students nominated for class offices were required to sign a statement that they were not and did not contemplate becoming members of fraternities or sororities while in high school. In this *current* school year this action has been extended, and *all* members of the new sophomore and junior classes were asked to sign such a statement, the implication being that if anyone refused to sign he would be denied membership in any of the extracurricular activities of the school.

Students in the upper classes who *were* members of secret societies were permitted to continue as members with no restriction on participation in any aspect of student life. But the effect of the movement has been that after these two years only seniors are now members of secret societies. Needless to say, several of these organizations have already "folded up."

To further help this movement the school administration felt that upper classmen who were members of fraternities and sororities and who in many cases were effective campus leaders should have much opportunity to throw their influence behind the broad program of school extracurricular activities. Therefore in 1947-48, Mr. Green, the principal, called together the presidents of all secret societies, analyzed with them the social needs of youth which fraternity members felt were not being sufficiently well met by the current school program, and invited their suggestions as to what the school could do to meet better the social needs of all students now that fraternities were being eliminated. These presidents were very frank and honest in their opinions and gave several helpful suggestions. As a consequence, more social events were scheduled, more evening affairs permitted, and other improvements were made. At the very start of this year, too, I called together all fraternity and sorority presidents (now seniors only) and enlisted their suggestions and support in promoting a more adequate social program. I have the feeling that they are "playing ball" squarely with us in these matters.

RESULTS OF CAREFULLY LAID PLAN

Thus in a space of three years we shall have eliminated fraternities and sororities from our campus. We have had no repercussions thus far. To my

knowledge no parent has openly objected to the action of our student government and the administration of the school. The great majority of parents were against the secret societies anyway, and I believe that they are glad that action was taken against them. To the majority of parents the fraternities and sororities of the past represented expense, social pressure groups, cliques, and relatively weak moral and ethical standards.

The pleasing thing to us was that the leadership in this movement to eliminate fraternities and sororities came from the students themselves. They tackled the problem sensibly, with a good sense of timing, and with a sincerity and clarity of purpose. They did not antagonize existing members of secret societies by damning them but starved the organizations to death for want of members. The school administration was called upon only to give support to the student leaders. It was a good example of the force of a united majority opinion under able student leadership. These students did a job which could not have been successfully done by dictum or legislation.

CONCLUSIONS

From our experience, therefore, I would draw these conclusions or suggestions as to how administrators should deal with fraternities and sororities in case they are detrimental to the welfare of a school:

1. Encourage classes in Problems of Democracy to analyze the nature of secret societies in a democratic society.
2. Encourage the school newspaper to raise issues about fraternities and sororities in a public high school.
3. Throw the issue into student government meetings for discussion.
4. Stress the election of student officers who are concerned with the general welfare of the school, who work for the greatest good of the greatest number.
5. Encourage student moves in the right direction but do not take the problem out of their hands. Let them carry on their own fight with your backing.
6. Do not demand the abolition of secret societies or try to legislate them out of existence. Let the majority student opinion govern the situation.
7. Give the students a better school program of activities than the fraternities or sororities can give them.
8. Welcome the help of fraternity and sorority members in planning a better school program of activities so long as they place the general welfare first.

9. Don't try to do the whole job all at once. Start with a first year group and work it one class at a time.
10. Use the same democratic methods with students as you wish them to use with one another.
11. Get the new students before the fraternities and sororities get them.
12. Have eternal faith in the goodness of boys and girls.

Louis H. Braun, Principal, East High School, Denver, Colorado; and *T. Guy Rogers*, Principal, Thomas Jefferson High School, San Antonio, Texas, served as discussants.

Group XIV—Parlor D

CHAIRMAN: *Charles L. Steel, Jr.*, Principal, Teaneck High School, Teaneck, New Jersey

Federal Aid to Education

ERNEST GIDDINGS

MORE than the six million secondary-school pupils who are already enrolled in the schools of our nation will be benefited by increased expenditures for their education if Senate Bill S 246 is enacted into law by the 81st Congress. Conservative estimates, based on recent birth statistics and on elementary-school enrolments, indicate that the secondary-school enrolment will reach or exceed eight million by 1960. S 246 was introduced in the United States Senate on January 6, 1949, by Senator Elbert D. Thomas of Utah. It is significant that the bill has the bipartisan sponsorship of nine Democratic and six Republican Senators, with Senator Robert A. Taft of Ohio heading the list of minority party sponsors.

S 246 is identical in all its major features with S 472 which was passed by the Senate of the 80th Congress by a vote of 58 to 22. S 246, therefore, embodies many improvements and refinements resulting from long study by able Senators and other national leaders. The bill is widely considered the best Federal aid to education bill which has ever been before the Congress. Educators and lay citizens need to know and understand its provisions. School principals particularly are obligated to know the methods by which allotments will be computed and channels and purposes for which they may be used. Only then can they help inform groups of lay citizens and stimulate the interest necessary to bring about the enactment of this important legislation by the 81st Congress.

Ernest Giddings is Assistant Director of the Legislative-Federal Relations Division of the National Education Association, Washington, D. C.

PURPOSE

\$55.00 floor: The authors of S 246 state as its first purpose, "to assist the states in financing minimum programs of public elementary and secondary education." This objective will be fulfilled almost exclusively in those states having the most children and the least income. This minimum program is defined in S 246 as that kind of a school which can be provided by an average annual expenditure of \$55.00 per child in average daily attendance. Some states cannot reach this minimum floor expenditure with local and state revenues alone. Other states can reach it in only a small fraction of their local school districts. The first objective of S 246 will, therefore, be fulfilled as each state allots to the local school district that amount of Federal funds necessary to bring the total expenditure per pupil up to the \$55.00 level.

Equalization of Educational Opportunities: The second objective of S 246 is "to reduce the inequalities in education among the several states." Inequalities between states continue in the ratio of 4 to 1, year after year. That is when the average expenditure in the poorest state was \$55.00 per pupil, the more wealthy states were spending more than \$220.00 per pupil per year. Increases in recent years leave approximately the same differences between states. The second objective of S 246 will, therefore, be met, because application of the objective formula allots approximately \$29.00 per child to Mississippi and not less than \$5.00 per child in any state in the Union.

AMOUNT

The amount provided is \$300,000,000 per year. This amount is less than one per cent of the current national budget. It is also of interest to note that this figure is approximately ten per cent of the current state and local expenditure per year for public elementary and secondary education. It is extremely illogical when opponents of Federal aid to education argue that if and when the United States Congress appropriates some ten per cent of the costs of education that Congress will set up or permit to be set up controls over educational policies when such control is constitutionally and traditionally vested in the state, and when state constitutions so clearly incorporate and carry out that responsibility and so zealously guard against encroachments upon that right and privilege.

FORMULA OF DISTRIBUTION

Determination of the amount of money to be allotted to the states is by an objective formula. No Federal official or agency is granted or permitted discretionary power in setting this amount. Three very important but simple factors figure in the operation of the equalization formula for determining a state's allotment. *Need* is measured by the number of children age 5 to 17 in the state. The best indication of *ability* to support education is the total of

the incomes of the people of the state. If all states were making equal effort to support education these two factors alone would suffice. However, after determining the allotment due a state because of the number of children and the total of the incomes of the people the third factor is applied. That factor is *effort* and is measured by the percentage of the incomes of the people which is devoted to education.

The computation to determine the Federal aid allotment of any state is a simple one. If one per cent of the total income of the people of the states does not amount to \$50 for every census child age 5 to 17 years, the state qualifies for an allotment of Federal aid sufficient to bring the figure up to that \$50.00 level. As previously stated, the most needy states will qualify for approximately \$29.00 per child the first year. More wealthy equalization states will receive slightly in excess of \$5.00 per child.

Apportionment to the state is made on the basis of the number of children to educate, the financial ability of the people to support schools, and the effort they are making to do so.

The formula is sound. It is objective. Even the bitterest critics of Federal aid to education do not attack the equalization formula.

FLAT DISTRIBUTION

Those states which because of having fewer children and greater incomes do not qualify for equalization payments, nevertheless, are eligible for a \$5.00 per child per year allotment. This is the so-called *Flat Distribution* plan in the proposal.

ENCOURAGEMENT TO INCREASE STATE EXPENDITURE

States *are not required to match* the Federal funds in order to qualify. However, beginning with the first year, any state which spends for education less than $2\frac{1}{4}$ per cent of the income of its people shall have its allotment reduced proportionately. Furthermore, beginning with the fourth year of the plan, a state must spend either two per cent of its total income or \$120 per child on public education to remain eligible for its Federal allotment. States and local districts are thereby encouraged to increase and maintain their expenditures for education. The Federal assistance must be used to *supplement* the existing local and state budgets for education. It must not be used to decrease state and local support.

USE OF FUNDS

Allotments to states may be used to pay salaries of teachers and other employees, to buy instructional supplies, and to pay other current school costs in elementary and high schools only. Allotments may not be used to construct buildings, to defray indebtedness, or to make interest payments.

STATE DETERMINATION OF POLICY

Allotments to states may be used for any *current expenses for elementary- or high-school purposes* for which state and local funds may be legally expended. Recognizing the constitutional and traditional rights of the several states to determine the educational policy, this provision does thereby permit limited use of Federal funds to reimburse parents for transporting pupils to nonpublic schools in those states which provide such reimbursement from state funds. However, it should be noted that the use of public funds to *support* private sectarian schools is unconstitutional. The judicial authority in support of this contention is the United States Supreme Court. Recently in the *Everson Case* and in the *McCullum Case*, the court held that "No tax in any amount, large or small, can be levied to support any religious activities or institutions whatever they may be called, or whatever form they may adopt to teach or practice religion." The court stated this conclusion in the *Everson case* which originated in the state of New Jersey and repeated it in the *McCullum case* which originated in Illinois.

Rejections of two amendments to S 472 during the Senate debate in March, 1948 indicate clearly the intent of the United States Senate that state determination of educational policy should be continued.

An amendment introduced by Senator Donnell of Missouri would have prohibited approximately one third of the states from expending any part of their Federal allotments for a purpose; namely, transportation of their nonpublic school pupils, for which those states now legally expend state revenue. Debate on the amendment evidently strengthened the determination of most Senators that each state must continue to determine its own educational policy. The amendment was defeated by a vote of 80 to 5.

The amendment to S 472 introduced by Senator McMahon of Connecticut in effect proposed to ignore provisions in those state constitutions and state statutes which prohibit the use of any local or state monies for transportation of nonpublic school pupils. The amendment proposed a five million dollar appropriation to make funds available to all states to help provide the above named services. In several states which now prohibit such expenditures, the amendment provided that the Federal government would by-pass the state educational authorities and negotiate directly with local nonpublic schools. This proposed violation of the right of each state to determine its own educational policy was decisively rejected by a vote of 66 to 14.

Defeat of both amendments by an overwhelming vote indicated clearly that public opinion throughout our nation was determined that control of education should continue to be a function of the individual states. The United States Senate unmistakably wrote this policy into S 472 when it passed that act on April 1, 1948.

The most recent test on this issue occurred in February, 1949. Senator McMahon again placed the issue before the Senate Labor and Public Welfare Committee. He proposed that S 246 be revised to make Federal money for certain services directly available to nonpublic schools in all states. Such a plan would be in direct violation of the policy adopted by state law, or by state constitutional provision in many states. Members of the Senate Labor Committee strongly supported by an informed public opinion over the nation decided that this measure must not rise along on the coat tails of the education bill. There seems to be agreement, however, at this time (March, 1949) within the Senate Labor Committee that a separate bill to provide health services for both public and nonpublic school pupils shall be placed before the U. S. Senate.

ACCEPTANCE AND DISTRIBUTION

The Federal government will distribute the monies only to the forty-eight states, and to the territories—not to local school districts. The state legislature takes action to accept the money as is done in the case of certain other grants-in-aid. One stipulation must be met in keeping with the purpose of the bill; as has already been pointed out, state authorities must use whatever portion of the Federal aid allotment is necessary to bring every school district in the state up to a \$55 expenditure per pupil. The legislature of each state will set up its own plan for distribution of the remainder of the state Federal aid allotment. The state treasurer accepts the money from the Federal government. He pays it out upon order from the state education authority in accordance with the plan of distribution established by the legislature. Obviously, one simple state plan would be to use the identical plan of distribution by which state aid is allotted. In some states such a plan would be fair and equitable and easily administered. In other states an entirely new plan of distribution would be necessary. In any case, the state legislature makes that decision.

MONEY CAN BE PAID ONLY TO PUBLIC SCHOOL JURISDICTIONS

The state treasurer is the only authority permitted to distribute the Federal funds within the state. Distribution by the state treasurer is carefully safeguarded. He can distribute the funds only to local public school jurisdictions. Not one dollar could ever be paid by the state treasurer to any other agency than local public school jurisdictions within the state. To do so would violate the U.S. Constitution. The spending of the Federal funds must be done by the local board of education or some other education agency. The public school board may spend the funds for whatever current school purposes state and local money may be used for under state law and the state constitution. The rights of the state and of the public school jurisdictions are zealously guarded in the bill. The intent of the United States Senate manifests

itself by the fact that the expressions "Public school jurisdiction," "public school," "public elementary school," and "public secondary school" are used no less than thirty times in the text of the bill.

MINORITY GROUP PROTECTION

Minority groups are guaranteed a just and equitable allotment of Federal aid funds under the bill. States having separate schools for minority racial groups must devote to minority race schools at least that proportion of the Federal funds that the minority race bears to the total population. Such allotment must be made without reducing the proportion of local and state funds devoted to education in schools of the minority race. Furthermore, the same minimum foundation program or floor must be maintained at the same level in the separate schools for minority races as in other public schools in the state.

FISCAL REPORTS NECESSARY

I have just described certain requirements which the several states must observe in order to qualify for the allotments of Federal funds. Now, I want to differentiate between two possible kinds of controls. Fiscal controls within limits are entirely justifiable. Requiring an audit of funds to be reported through the United States Commissioner of Education to the United States Congress certainly in no way interferes with local and state determination of basic educational policy.

I have postponed until the end of this presentation the question of who shall control basic education policy. The United States Constitution makes no mention of education. In it, eighteen express powers are delegated to the United States Congress. Certain powers are prohibited to the states. Before all of the original thirteen states ratified the constitution, some of them had insisted upon a bill of rights to limit the power of the Federal government. Amendment Ten of the Bill of Rights provides that powers not delegated to the Congress or prohibited to the states shall be reserved to the states or to the people. By the Tenth Amendment, therefore, the power to regulate and control education is reserved to the states or to the people. Courts have consistently so interpreted the effect of this amendment.

Precedent and tradition have developed a national policy of state control. Supreme Court decisions have strengthened state control.

However, the authors of S 246 did not depend alone upon the Bill of Rights and Court decisions. Federal control over educational policy is expressly prohibited in the Bill. Section Two of S 246 specifies that no department, agency, or officer of the Federal government shall have any control in any way over the administration of local schools, over teachers, over the curriculum, over the instruction, nor over the methods of instruction.

In conclusion, a Federal aid bill containing the provisions I have described will establish a foundation or floor under educational expenditures and will assist the states in equalizing educational opportunities. In attaining these objectives it will require adequate state and local support for schools and at the same time prohibit Federal control and retain state and local control of all basic educational policy.

ACTION NEEDED NOW

Unlimited opportunities are open to members of the National Secondary-School Principals Association to help inform members of Congress about the need for early enactment of S 246. Let me enumerate three simple but specific opportunities for such action:

1. Every principal may encourage each teacher to write his or her Congressman and U. S. Senators, urging immediate passage of Federal aid to education legislation.
2. The principal may suggest that each teacher be responsible for discovering at least one lay citizen who will urge his Congressman and U. S. Senators to work for early passage of S 246.
3. The principal may encourage each teacher to work intelligently and continuously with the civic club, farm organizations, veterans group, or other organization of his choice to secure the aggressive co-operation of that group to the end that Federal aid to education legislation be passed without delay by the 81st Congress.

Co-operation of this type will help Congressmen and Senators to overcome the opposition to long overdue Federal aid to education. Passage of this legislation will help to make our nation in reality more nearly a land of equal opportunity for the youth of this and future generations.

Pending Federal School Legislation

C. DARL LONG

DURING the month of January, 1949, approximately ninety bills affecting education were introduced in the 81st Congress. These treat such subjects as child labor, civil rights in relation to education, the public schools in the District of Columbia, establishment of a plan for the education of government workers, further expansion of the program administered by the land-grant colleges and universities, adult education, Federal aid for general elementary- and secondary-school education, Federal aid for school construction, scholarship aid, Federal aid for health and recreation, Federal aid for library services, Federal aid for the school lunch program, Federal aid for schools in war-congested communities, extension of social security to public employees, exemption of school admissions from the

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Federal admissions tax, amendments to the GI Bill of Rights in relation to educational benefits, and federal aid for the promotion of certain youth projects sponsored by state, municipal and other local government agencies, universal military training, expansion of the system of military education now carried on at West Point and Annapolis, and the lifting of the Federal Security Agency to the status of a Department with a Secretary in the Cabinet.

Only brief references to a limited number of the foregoing areas of legislative activity on the Washington front are possible at this time. Inasmuch as Federal aid for public elementary and secondary school operations has already been discussed, that subject is eliminated from this report.

FEDERAL AID FOR SCHOOL CONSTRUCTION

After the issue of general aid for current operating purposes as provided in S 246, the subject that stands out in the judgment of many people as being of almost equal if not equal significance is the proposal to procure Federal aid to assist the states in financing the construction of school plants.

At least ten bills were introduced in January for this purpose. Some of these measures like S 137, offered by Senator Robertson of Virginia, HR 150 offered by Congressman Bland from the same state, and HR 1551 offered by Congressman Lucas from Texas, are intended as substitute measures for the general aid bill. The immediately obvious weakness of these three measures, aside from the purpose of killing general aid bills to help meet current costs, is the limited funds authorized by them. Each of the above measures call for \$300,000,000 to be apportioned as outright grants to the states and an additional \$300,000,000 to be apportioned on a 50-50 Federal-state matching basis. This is an aggregate of \$600,000,000 in Federal funds. No additional funds are authorized under the acts. Including state-local funds for matching purposes this legislation would finance a \$900,000,000 construction program throughout the nation. It is now estimated that an aggregate of some ten to thirteen billion dollars will be necessary to modernize existing school plants and to provide additional classrooms required to care for increasing enrollments during the next six to ten years.

Minority House Leader Joseph W. Martin, Jr., of Massachusetts, in HR 1766, introduced January 24, calls for \$300,000,000 per year for three years or an aggregate of \$900,000,000 in Federal aid to be matched 50-50 with state and local funds. This is, therefore, a \$1,800,000,000 program.

The bill that has to date attracted the widest attention and support of school leaders and organizations is S 287, offered January 10, 1949, by Senator Matthew M. Neely, of West Virginia.

The Neely bill is carefully drawn. In its administrative set-up it conforms to general principles involving Federal-state relationships which have been widely endorsed by educators in recent years. During the first year of the operation of the act an aggregate of \$98,000,000 would be allotted to the states. For each of the next five succeeding years the total would be \$490,000,000. The aggregate of Federal funds thus provided by the Neely Bill would be \$2,550,000,000. Inasmuch as state-local matching is required, the aggregate of the construction program over a six-year period would amount to about \$5,000,000,000. The bill channels administration through the U. S. Office of Education and the regularly established state educational agencies. In this respect the bill is far superior to most other measures—e.g., the Martin bill which lodges with the Federal Works Agency the administration of the program it authorizes. The Neely bill also calls for state matching of Federal funds. But it takes state ability into consideration. The poorest states would be required to put up \$40 for each \$60 received from the Federal treasury, the richest states \$60 for each \$40 received from Washington. Other states would fall between these ranges. Large discretionary powers are available within a state in the administration of the program to the extent that, as long as over-all state matching is kept within the presented limits, the state can conform to whatever matching pattern it may most wish in treating with local school districts.

What are the prospects for enactment of a Federal-aid-to-school-construction measure in the 81st Congress?

President Truman indicated in his State of the Union and Budget messages that the primary need at this time is for general aid to elementary and secondary education. He stated further, however, that there is an apparent need for Federal aid in the fields of (1) school construction, and (2) scholarships. The extent of need, the relative abilities of the states to finance their own building programs, the conditions with respect to special levies and bonding for school purposes in local school districts, and other factors were mentioned by him as so many questions to which answers are needed. The President, therefore, requested Congress for an appropriation of \$1,000,000 to be expended for studies and surveys in the fields of school construction and of scholarship aid.

Whether such studies can be completed in time to get legislation through the 81st Congress, even next year—i.e., 1950, remains to be seen. It seems more possible at this time that legislation for school construction may hold over until the 82nd Congress.

DEPARTMENT OF WELFARE

Demands to elevate the Federal Security Agency to a Department represented by a Secretary in the President's Cabinet are of concern to persons

interested in the status of the regularly established educational agency on the Federal level. The U. S. Office of Education is an important part of the Federal Security Agency.

The Senate Committee on Labor and Public Welfare in the 80th Congress approved a bill calling for Cabinet status for the FSA. Final action was held up last year, pending the report of the Hoover Commission on reorganization of the executive branch of the Federal government. The Hoover Commission report, it is anticipated, will urge Cabinet status for FSA.

An administration bill, HR 782, introduced by Congressman Dawson, of Illinois, was favorably reported February 15 by the House Committee on Expenditures in Executive Departments to the House for enactment. The bill itself is brief—altogether just 55 lines. The new department will be headed by a secretary. There will be an Under-Secretary and two Assistant Secretaries, appointed by the President with the advice and consent of the Senate. These persons are to perform the duties assigned them by the Secretary in whom are lodged all the powers and functions of the Department.

The administration program as set forth in HR 782 differs from the stated policies of the NEA, AASA, and Council of Chief State School Officers which are on record in favor of an independent education agency in Washington. The program sponsored by these three groups calls for a national board of education, with members appointed for long over-lapping terms by the President, authorized to select the U. S. Commissioner of Education. The organization would be essentially like that found in many of the best administered school districts and in some states.

This position on the part of the NEA, AASA, and Council of Chief State School Officers contrasts with what had for many years been a purpose dear to the heart of the organized profession; a Department of Education in the President's Cabinet.

Prospects are that the 81st Congress will enact HR 782, or a similar bill, which will elevate FSA to Department status. Whether such action will strengthen education on the Federal level as an effective agency for good will be watched closely and with deep interest.

LABOR EXTENSION ACT OF 1949

What the Land-Grant College Acts of 1862 and 1890, and the Smith-Lever Act of 1914, have meant to agricultural and home economics education will be paralleled in the field of labor education if S 110, or similar legislation, is enacted by the 81st Congress.

The Land-Grant College acts function through the Department of Agriculture. The proposal, it is parenthetically noted, again illustrates the tendency of the Washington front to distribute educational responsibilities and programs among many different agencies rather than in the U.S. Office of Education.

S 110 proposes that services under the Labor Extension Act shall (1) promote the welfare of wage earners and the industries of which they are a part, make available information useful to wage earners and their *bona fide* labor organizations in presenting factually their contribution to production as a basis for compensation, make available information on practices in writing and carrying out collective-bargaining agreements; (2) make available information and research facilities concerning principles and techniques of labor and management relations; (3) make available information concerning living and working conditions; (4) make available information on labor law and legislation and its administration; (5) promote constructive relations between workers and management in behalf of the national welfare and security; and (6) make available information on the significance of the free-enterprise system in the economic history and growth of the United States, and the history of trade-unions, their responsibilities, their rights, duties, and obligations with respect to the public, their members and fellow workers, and management, and relationship to the development of democracy in the United States.

The Act creates a Labor Extension Division within the Department of Labor to be headed by a Director, appointed by and with the advice and consent of the President, responsible to the Secretary of Labor. The Director would work with a Labor Extension Council of twelve members, half of whom would be named by the Secretary of Labor from a panel of names submitted by co-operating institutions.

On the state level the program would be administered by state labor extension boards named by the Governor of each respective state. State boards would be named by the Governor from panels submitted by *bona fide* statewide labor organizations and by the co-operating institutions in the state.

The state is required to provide at least 25 per centum of the annual allotment of Federal funds to the state, either from tax revenues, or from college appropriations, fees, or grants "in kind by individuals or groups or educational or research institutions."

Each state is required to set up a state plan to be submitted for approval to the Secretary of Labor.

To what extent the operation of the program would utilize secondary and trade schools is not clear.

Among the interesting issues involved in the proposed legislation is the by-passing on the Federal level of the U. S. Office of Education and on the state level of the regularly established state educational agencies. Whether the program suggests that other groups in the nation should drive for specialized curricula provides a basis for speculation that is, to say the least, intriguing.

S 110 has substantial backing. It is co-sponsored by Senators Morse (R-Ore.), Thomas (D-Utah), Humphrey (D-Minn.), Aiken (R-Vt.), Thye (R-Minn), and Douglas (D-Ill.). Similar bills have been introduced in the House of Representatives.

The chances for enactment in the 81st Congress are rated as fair to good.

EXEMPTION OF ADMISSIONS FROM FEDERAL TAXES

There is within the National Association of Secondary-School Principals a widespread interest in the proposal to exempt admissions to school events from the Federal admissions tax.

A number of bills dealing with this matter were introduced in January, with still others to follow.

HR 958 sponsored by Congressman Potter (R-Mich.), proposes that "No tax shall be levied . . . in respect to any admissions all the proceeds of which inure to the benefit of elementary and secondary schools if no part of the net earnings thereof inures to the benefit of any private stockholder or individual." HR 271, sponsored by Reed (R-Ill.), proposes a broader change in the law. The exemption would apply to all admissions to recreation facilities and activities operated or conducted by the Federal government, the several State governments, or political subdivisions thereof." HR 135, sponsored by Congressman Battle (D-Ala.), a bill identical with S131, sponsored by Senator Sparkman (D-Ala.), proposes that the exemption apply to "certain charitable entertainments . . . conducted solely for the purpose of (1) improving the health or welfare of children; (2) preventing the loss of sight by, or restoring sight to, human beings; or (3) preventing the occurrence of diseases in human beings or improving the health of sufferers from such diseases."

The exemption of admissions from the admissions tax as it applies to schools has not to date been made a part of the legislative agenda of the National Education Association. Conferences have been held with representatives of the Treasury Department to discover whether there is authority lodged in the Secretary to make exemptions within his own discretion.

He has no such power. The situation can, therefore, be remedied only by special legislation.

The possibility of procuring tax exemption for admissions to school-sponsored events *only* is not encouraging. The purpose itself is in support of what is widely known as "class" or "special group" legislation, a category in the field of making laws that often is not regarded with favor. Chances for getting relief from the Federal admissions tax would undoubtedly be improved were concerted action to be developed on the part of all groups concerned with the matter. This development would not be easy to effect because many institutions and organizations sponsoring programs for charitable and public service purposes are not eager to embark upon the adventure. They do not wish to be earmarked as exempted groups or exempted institutions.

Within the Treasury itself, and on the part of Congressmen, it is difficult to prove that exemption of schools should not be extended to church organizations, and to the Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, women's clubs, civic organizations, fraternal groups, and the like, when none of the proceeds derived from admission events inure to the benefit of any stockholder or individual.

These observations do not detract from the merits of the proposal itself. They do, however, indicate the difficulties interposed to the enactment of the kind of legislation under consideration.

SOCIAL SECURITY

In 1940, the Wagner bill proposal would have compelled all public employees to enter the Federal Social Security program. Such mandatory action clearly would have endangered existing local and state teacher retirement systems. Since 1940 many similar bills have been proposed but those with the administration's approval have included a provision for *voluntary compacts* between the states and the Social Security Board. The voluntary compact plan, developed after vigorous protest from public employees, provides a means for cushioning the shock between the expansion of social security and the present teacher retirement systems.

After a long study of possible ways of extending social security, the Ways and Means Committee in the Eightieth Congress introduced a bill (HR 6777) through Congressman Reed, of New York. The bill did not make progress but an identical bill—HR 447—has been introduced into the present Congress by Congressman Kean, of New Jersey. It is expected that a similar bill will be offered by the administration.

The voluntary compact plan, as now stated, includes a provision that no state or political subdivision may enter into a social security compact

covering any employees now protected by a state or local retirement system. Social security, therefore, will be reserved to those local and state employees which the states and their subdivisions do not choose to protect under their own retirement plans.

TEACHER RETIREMENT EXEMPTION UP TO \$1,440

For several years the Federal income tax law has fallen with considerable weight upon retired teachers. This load was especially onerous because under the Federal railroad retirement act retired railroad employees were exempted on the first \$1,440 of income, all social security payments were exempted, and other groups had been granted special exemptions.

The NEA engaged in a running debate with the Treasury over the unfairness of the exemptions withheld from public employees but allowed to certain groups. Finally through the Joint Committee of Public Employees a bill was prepared and introduced in the Eightieth Congress. This bill—HR 1613—proposed to exempt all local, state, and Federal employees up to the \$1,440 allowed to others.

On February 3, 1949, Congressman Forand, of Rhode Island, a member of the House Ways and Means Committee, introduced a bill into the present Congress which is identical with HR 1613. The new number is HR 2295. It is expected that public employee groups, organized as the Joint Committee of Public Employees, will support this proposal.

TAX EXEMPTION FOR SUMMER SCHOOL EXPENSES

For two or three years a vigorous effort has been made to have summer-school expenses of teachers defined as a necessary business expense. The Bureau of Internal Revenue persists in calling this type of expense "personal improvement" and has not permitted deductions for Federal income tax purposes. At the present time the NEA is associated with a teacher's case before the tax court in an effort to obtain a favorable ruling on the point. This approach through the courts appears to be better at this time than to try to amend the revenue act, although the latter possibility is being kept in mind.

CONCLUSION

Time will not permit further expansion of this running account of pending education measures and issues before the Eighty-First Congress.

The questions on which legislative action is probable in the present Congress include (1) general Federal aid to education, (2) elevation of FSA to Department Status, (3) beginnings in the fields of school construction aid and scholarship aid—at least to the extent of surveys of need, and (4) aid for health programs which have been omitted from this discussion for

lack of time. (5) The Congress is almost certain to provide some Federal aid for school districts congested by reason of Federal activities. This is an obligation that Congress cannot honorably avoid. Other bills will be enacted which, often by indirection, will be of deep concern to education—e.g., amendments to child labor laws, and the like, which will have the effect of extending the period of education for youth.

Finally, I believe it is worth noting that a greater interest on the part of the organized teaching profession—particularly on the part of such organizations as our own, and state and local education associations—should be manifested in the field of Federal school legislation. The concentration of interest and effort on local and state legislative programs is commendable. There should be no falling-off of interest and effort in these fields. There is, at the same time, a large blind spot in our profession as far as attention and action on Federal school legislative matters are concerned. I am told that marked improvement is under way in this field. That is desirable. The Federal government cannot escape the part of an expanding role in strengthening education in the years ahead. Our security and our economic well-being are at stake. Education is a fundamental part of the foundation on which these two essentials are based. Our obligation is, therefore, clear, and I feel sure that none of us will avoid meeting it.

B. C. B. Tighe, Principal, Fargo Senior High School, Fargo, North Dakota; and *S. M. Hastings*, Principal, O'Keefe High School, Atlanta, Georgia, served as discussants.

Requirements for Teacher Certification

The University of Chicago Press, Chicago, Illinois, has just recently published its Fourteenth Edition (1949-50) of its monograph entitled *Requirements for Certification of Teachers, Counselors, and Administrators for Elementary Schools, Secondary Schools, and Junior Colleges* by Robert C. Woellner and M. Aurilla Wood. This outstanding publication provides accurate information not only to prospective teachers, but also to instructors of education, advisers, and placement officers in educational institutions. The pages of the volume are unnumbered. The states are listed in alphabetical order with each state showing the requirements for the various types of certificates for the elementary school and high school. Copies of this publication may be secured from the University of Chicago Press, 5750 Ellis Avenue, Chicago 37, Illinois, at \$3.50 each.

Discussion Groups

Tuesday, March 1, 1949, 2:15-4:15 P. M.

Group I—Francis 1st Room

CHAIRMAN: *Paul R. Pierce*, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, Chicago, Illinois; formerly Principal, Wells High School, Chicago, Illinois. The following is a brief of Dr. French's presentation.

How Can the Experience-Centered Curriculum Be Developed?

WILL FRENCH

WHEN a lone school pioneers in a new type of education, for instance, the experience-centered curriculum, it is soon burdened down with the theme, "Everybody is out of step but Willie."

If a school designated as a pilot or experimental school proceeds under the aegis of a responsible official educational body, that school, too, finds itself isolated and subject to criticism from within and without even though it may be a part of a loosely knit, scattered group of participating schools.

"The strength of the wolf is the pack, and the strength of the pack is the wolf" is an adage upon which the local initiative principle of the American educational system is built. Wherever schools want to make changes in established policies and practices, they should band together as a task force under the leadership of a near-by teacher education institution or of the state department of education.

Such basic strategy affords support, aid, encouragement, approval, and protection of neighboring, similarly-situated schools, while at the same time it preserves local initiative and responsibility, and moves educational advancement in such forms as an experience-centered curriculum toward a national scope more rapidly.

How Can the Experience-Centered Curriculum Be Developed?

T. H. BROAD

FOR purposes of this discussion the writer will accept the concept of an experience-centered curriculum as established by Alberty in his book, *Reorganizing the High-School Curriculum*. Starting with the concept, I should like to set up a few basic assumptions regarding the experience-centered curriculum:

First, experiencing is basic to effective learning. Harold Rugg discusses that at length in his new book, *Foundations for American Education*. The

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second basic assumption is that curriculum is most effectively done by groups of interested teachers, parents, and pupils attempting to discover and meet the needs of pupils in a particular school. Another assumption is that teachers, parents and pupils must work together determining curriculum objectives and purposes. The fourth basic assumption is that the administrator must become a member of such a group, providing materials and time for teachers to work, offering leadership if that is possible, but in every case offering encouragement and inspiration for the group attempting to develop such a curriculum.

SIGNIFICANCE OF EXPERIENCE-CENTERED CURRICULUM

There are certain significant aspects of the experience-centered curriculum which I should like to call to your attention: first, every pupil is a person. For years we have glibly talked about taking care of individual differences. We found ourselves in a paradoxical situation because we proposed to take care of individuals, yet established our teaching procedures to meet group needs. It is much more important that we become concerned about our pupils—thinking of them, not just as individuals,—but as real, living persons, each one a human organism, functioning as such. Another significant aspect is that if each person learns by experience, we must recognize that there is a curriculum for each individual child in school. The sum total of the experiences of any one child under the direction of the school will be different from the sum total of the experiences of every other child, even though many of their learnings will be in common. That particular point is a little difficult for many teachers to see and understand. But learning is an individual thing, and if we believe that learning is most effective through experiencing, we must recognize that each child will have his own individual curriculum.

Another significant aspect is that teaching approaches must be developed through student interest. The key to all effective teaching is the creation of interest on the part of the student in the problem to be studied. Where there is no interest, there will be little learning; and in too many instances, where there is no interest, the learning may be negative, or even in a direction opposite to that desired by the teacher.

HURDLES TO OVERCOME

There are some hurdles to overcome in developing the experience-centered curriculum. One of the first is the lack of leadership on the part of principals and other administrative persons. This lack may be due to indifference, inertia, or insecurity; not, of course, neglecting ignorance or lack of information. The key to any curricular development in a school is proper leadership on the part of the principal. A second hurdle to overcome is the kind of pre-service training of the staff as a whole. Most teachers have gone through a traditional high school and a traditional college program and, even though

they studied about the experience-centered curriculum in education classes at college, too many times they were getting it by the "lecture method." It is much easier to talk about the experience-centered curriculum than it is to work at developing it. The third hurdle is the experience of most teachers who have spent all their teaching days in subject-centered schools. Such experience tends to narrow the concern of teachers to such an extent that they are most insecure when trying to think through an experience-centered curriculum. The fourth hurdle to be overcome is simple, ordinary, every-day vested interests of teachers. Even parents in the community will have particular "hobbies" which they would like to ride into the curriculum. Some teachers will have vested interests which they will attempt to get into such a curriculum, either directly or by "bootlegging." Another hurdle to be overcome will be found in the conflicts of philosophy. Some teachers who are steeped in the philosophy of the strictly classical or authoritarian type of education will have difficulty finding values in an experience-centered curriculum.

Some parents in the community whose school experiences have been limited and too far in the past, likewise, will be hurdles. Another hurdle in developing the experience-centered curriculum is the conflict which will arise about the psychology of learning; this will hold for both teachers and parents. There are those who think the experience-centered curriculum is too easy. This stems from some mistakes made in years past by teachers who didn't distinguish between learning experiences and "busy work." There are others who believe that things pleasant are not good. There are others who think learning takes place only in "reciting," and such thinking will present a hurdle to the development of the program. Community indifference and, sometimes, opposition to change create a hurdle to overcome. This is best overcome by including in the planning those people in the community who are interested in and concerned with education.

Developing any curricular program requires much time. Overcoming the hurdles mentioned above requires much time. Developing an experience-centered curriculum requires much time on the part of teachers, parents, and all concerned. Most schools are so tightly scheduled that such time is not available. Unfortunately many school people want to throw out the old in May and start with the new in September. Such procedure won't create a hurdle—it merely spells disaster. Through careful planning, time can be provided for teachers and others to do the necessary amount of thinking and working. After the hurdles in developing an experience-centered curriculum have been eliminated, still more hurdles and handicaps await those who will attempt to introduce and implement the experience-centered curriculum into school practice. The first thing that will face any school is the lack of conviction on the part of some staff members that the experience-centered curriculum

has any validity or is anything more than a "watering down" or "softening up" process. Another big block to effective practicing will be lack of materials available. The experience, in most schools where the experience-centered curriculum has been attempted, has been the difficulty in securing and making available usable and adaptable materials.

The third problem immediately arising is the lack of teaching techniques and approaches which are valid to the problem at hand. Another problem immediately arising is that caused by large numbers and large classes,—teachers do not know their children well. One of the musts in the experience-centered curriculum is that *teachers must know children better*.

All the above, when added to the fact that we take away from our teachers all the things they have formerly done and worked with (by way of materials, textbooks, and procedures) brings about on the part of teachers a feeling of frustration and complete insecurity. This is particularly true of teachers who have not worked through the development of such a program but who have had it placed in their hands to put into operation.

I have in the above given you some of the aspects of such a program, some of the hurdles which we face. I should like to conclude this discussion by offering some suggested procedures. Certainly I hope that the above is not so discouraging that it will prevent any school from attempting to better itself or to work on some of its problems.

PROPOSED APPROACH FOR SMALL HIGH SCHOOL

If I were principal of a small school, I should like to use my entire staff in beginning an approach to the experience-centered curriculum; and probably one of the best approaches is a study of the community in which the students live, what happens to them when they leave school, what job possibilities are available in the community and outside the community, and the kinds of community problems they will meet. A study of what graduates think is helpful, but can be misleading unless carefully done. A study of drop-outs is very helpful. There are many approaches and each school can select its own. The point is, some kind of a study should be selected to get direction for the work that is to come. Of course, large schools cannot use an entire staff, so must work through committees. As I have previously said, such work takes much time, so the principal must find ways and means of providing the time that is necessary for such work. The best work is done when school time is given for it. It is best to do much of the work during the school year. One of the most successful approaches is to do all the preliminary work during the school year, study the problems, and then use the facilities of some good summer workshop for faculty members to produce source units and teaching units; recognizing that the experience of teachers in producing such units is of much more value than the finished product.

In working with such a group the following steps should be taken: first, agree on the purposes of that particular school—why does the community support it? What kind of people do we expect its graduates to be? Second, determine with the group what we believe about how children learn. Third, study carefully the ten imperative needs of youth and establish areas of learning so that an approach to the teaching can be made. Fourth, agree on some problems to be attacked. Do not spend all your time trying to identify all the problems. Start with one that is of real concern to the students and work through it. The important thing is to start. After you have agreed on a problem, then the committee must work out and agree on certain definite objectives to be reached through a study of that problem.

The committee must identify, recognize, and list the characteristics of behavior which should be developed if the established objectives are effective. The committee should list all possible teaching approaches and techniques and should recognize that teachers' personal interests enter into the teaching-learning situation. An adequate bibliography should be prepared but, more important than that, the committee should accumulate all available materials. Last, learning is not effective if the experiencing does not include evaluation. Some methods of evaluation must be arrived at; the committee should be aware that the evaluation must include the teaching methods, the materials used, whether or not the objectives were reached, and the validity of the methods of evaluation. Evaluation must be done often and it must include much pupil participation and thinking as well as pupil opinion.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, it should be remembered that the activities of the experience-centered curriculum devised to meet the needs of children will never be permanently established. Every group will have had experiences on which new ones must be built, so each group and each year will present a new kind of problem. Every school should be careful to avoid establishing a set program, but should keep a log of activities—an account of what has been done—then build on that. New teachers always present problems in the experience-centered curriculum school, so some definite ways of orienting those new people must be devised. The old saw about experience being the best teacher also holds in developing an experience-centered curriculum; let teachers, parents, and students experience the activities involved in developing your experience-centered curriculum.

A. B. Combs, Assistant Director, Division of Instructional Service, State Department of Public Instruction, Raleigh, North Carolina; and *Woodrow W. Wilkerson*, Supervisor of Secondary Education, State Department of Education, Richmond, Virginia, served as discussants.

Group II—Parlor A

CHAIRMAN: *B. L. Dodds*, Director, Division of Education and Applied Psychology, Purdue University, Lafayette, Indiana

What Programs for the Slow Learner?

LEON MONES

I SPEAK to you as a junior high school principal who has had some pilot experience with an educational problem which must inevitably become prevailing in our public school system of education.

Every statistical study predictive of school population finds that we may expect a vastly augmented secondary school population over the next twenty-five years. Not only the increasing birthrate, but obvious social and economic influences will move into our secondary schools increasing numbers of boys and girls. These, of course, will not be the select and homogeneous students whom we knew a generation ago. They are, in fact, bound to be more heterogeneous, more diversified than even the urban high school population of today. As the compulsory school age will tend to become higher, as there will be exercised increased opposition to the employment of youth under 18, as industry will become more exacting in qualifications for specialized employment, as we will emphasize the need of a higher level of education in our social system, we shall find among the entrants in our high schools, pupils of such social and economic groups, of such family tradition and background that rarely were found in our high schools before. In 1920 there were 2,495,676 pupils in our high schools constituting 32 per cent of the 14-17 year old age group. In 1940 there were 7,113,282 pupils in high school constituting 73 per cent of the same age group. It is estimated that as of today fully 25 per cent of this same age group are still not in school. It is quite obvious that with the prevailing increased pressure to bring these educational laggards into school, and in response to the other influences we have mentioned, the prediction of a vastly increased secondary-school population is reasonable.

And yet the paradoxical factor is suggested by the fact that of every one hundred pupils who presently enter our high schools only forty-five finish...obvious testimony that somehow our high schools which must meet the needs and interests of American youth, do not, at least on the basis of present holding power, seem to be doing so for about half the pupils.

And as our high schools have been forced to become less selective and to admit pupils who used to be termed "non-high-school material," teachers have been troubled by the influx of these so-called "slow learners," and have

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charged them with lowering secondary educational standards, impeding the progress of the willing and able students, disrupting the disciplines and routines of the high schools, and diluting the traditional high-school curriculum.

It is not our purpose today to appraise these changes judicially; let us rather deal realistically with the facts. Yes, indeed, there will come into our secondary schools a generation of such boys and girls as never had the prospect, the will, the interest, or the social good fortune to enter high school before. In the words of Paul Valery, "the future, like everything else, is no longer quite like it used to be." We are, said Alfred North Whitehead, "in one of our rare moods of shifting our outlook,"—and our new outlook is that somehow, in some way, through the creative power of our resourcefulness and ingenuity, we shall accommodate in our secondary schools the sum total of our American youth, for their welfare and for ours. We have indeed, come to believe that extended and democratized public education is our most important instrumentality for the maintenance and promotion of our pattern of human life that we hope will increase the welfare of all individuals within our collective society.

THE PROBLEM OF THE SLOW LEARNER

But all plans for such extension brings us again to the problem of the "slow learner" in the full latitude of its implications. Who is this "slow learner" and what shall we do with him?

The term "slow learner" is deceptive and a misnomer. When we use it, we mean to indicate that pupil who cannot, in our estimation, succeed in achieving a satisfactory rate of learning, who cannot acquire a satisfactory quantity of academic content or approved skill in a normal time of learning. Now, as a matter of fact, the pupil who fails in our secondary school may not be a slow-learner in this sense at all. He may be (1) an unwilling pupil who does not like the organic experience of organizing mental effort along academic lines (2) a pupil from a social, economic or ethnic background which has given him no readiness, motive, or desire to learn the traditional content (3) a pupil in whom no basic need, motive, or purpose has developed into a pattern of action (4) a pupil who is psychotic, emotionally disturbed, or neurotic, and whose maladjustment is unknown to us (5) a pupil with devastating experiences of delinquency outside of school hours (6) a pupil who is physically handicapped, undernourished, or who suffers from some covert health inadequacy (7) the true Binét pupil (often called the CRMD, class for retarded mental development),—dull-witted, whose top limit of achievement is a fourth-grade age in mathematics and reading, and whose upper limit of academic intelligence is an I.Q. of 70. As a matter of fact it is practical, in my experience, to divide pupils who do not learn into four simplified categories:

1. The constitutionally handicapped,—pupils constitutionally handicapped with that type of mental inadequacy, measured by a low I.Q., who cannot exercise the processes of generalized reasoning.
2. That type of pupil who has never succeeded in organizing intelligence, feeling, and will along the line of some purpose, and hence is too lazy, too disinterested, too reluctant, to pursue the standardized academic objectives.
3. That type of pupil who has not been adequately taught and hence is not equipped with the fundamental skills necessary to proceed. Such a "slow learner" may evidence a remarkably high I.Q. on non-verbal tests and yet because of his verbal inadequacy will test low on the typical I.Q. test.
4. Those emotionally disturbed, neurotic, pre-delinquent, and imbalanced children who are not yet sufficiently overt in their symptoms to be classed as schizophrenic, but who walk along a sort of dangerous brink, and whom too much pressure, too much compulsion, or too much so-called discipline, may topple over.

Now these pupils, all of them, by law, by right, by the hope of our future welfare, belong in our schools, and for them we shall need to provide a program which will answer their needs, supply them with purposes, and help them to find a station of personal satisfaction and social value in their community. If our schools do not accept and equip themselves for this responsibility, it will be delegated to some other agency more receptive, more resourceful, and one is tempted to say, more intelligent.

It is true that statistics show we have accepted an influx of such pupils into our high schools. But by and large we have accepted them on our own terms and with vested convictions as to their needs. As industry abolished its apprenticeship systems, as laws abolished street-trades and other work-opportunities for young people, we had to take them into our schools. But we did little to provide the active environment they needed or wanted. We did indeed seek, somewhat hysterically at times, to revise our curriculum. But the typical results of curriculum revision have done little to help the well advertised sixty per cent for whom our high schools are unrealistic, unprofitable, and unimportant. These "slow learners" are alive outside of school in a community environment that is to them real and meaningful, and in this environment they grow physically and biologically mature. It is one of our agonies that we are forced to keep them socially immature in our schools by procedures that compel them, like naughty children, to study with repugnance assignments of learning which for them has little interest, promise of success, challenge, or profit.

These pupils constitute our educational rejects—the school dullards, the sitters, whom we feel forced to tolerate in our schools, until at long last they reach the age at which it is permissive to release them to whatever fate is in store. They fail and keep failing. They develop either a humiliating acceptance of failure or a resentment at their stigma. They do not experience the stimulation of success, and do not develop the stature and maturity that go

with success. More or less dogmatic eligibility rules keep them from the athletic teams, from dramatic plays, from activity managerships. The rule often is that if they cannot pass academic subjects in which they cannot succeed, we won't let them do the things in which they may succeed and through which they may be educated.

We have mentioned the notorious sixty per cent which we all know, according to recent studies and resolutions, are untouched and unprofited by our present more or less compulsory high school education. Among these, as we have seen, are the true Binéts, the legitimate slow learners whose constitutional fate, hereditary equipment, I.Q., native endowment—call it what you will—predestines them to academic failure. And yet by all rights—legislative, moral, and social, they are demanding admission into our secondary schools. And since our secondary schools are no longer to be considered thresholds for entering college, no longer vestibules to the hills of higher learning, but are, instead, institutions for guiding adolescent youth to some degree of social maturity, we must accept these students. Shall we segregate them, perhaps, in special secondary schools, adjusted to their age, biology, and academic limitations? This kind of segregated homogeneity seems to us socially unwise; adolescence is a particularly bad time in which to practice such segregation, it seems to us.

Experience has taught us that between fifteen per cent and twenty per cent of pupils presently acceptable for high school entrance belong to the Binét group. These pupils present certain definite and largely identical characteristics. Their I.Q.'s, particularly when measured by any type of tests that operate through language, remain steadily at a level of 70. Their top limit in reading as well as in arithmetic achievement is the fourth grade. They cannot learn to exercise the higher and more complicated mental processes and, hence, learning through reading, or learning that must be done with the help of readings, are alike impossible. They cannot learn any body of knowledge or any order of skill dependent upon responses of higher intelligence. They cannot generalize, theorize, indulge in inferences or comparisons, and they are particularly unable to use any kind of symbol—verbal, mathematical, or logical. Thus as far as verbal expression or communication is concerned they are decidedly inarticulate and blocked. They cannot develop consciousness or awareness apart from contact with actual experience. They cannot follow sentence trails or trails of logic. For them the literary heritage is a land in which they cannot travel. Poetry and anything beyond elementary literature is to them unthinkable as a meaningful experience.

THE SLOW LEARNER A CONTINGENT OF OUR CITIZENSHIP

And yet, as we indicated, these pupils must be accepted in some type of secondary educational setup appropriate to their adolescent years. For biolog-

ically, and in a biological sense emotionally, these students are on the road to maturity. The ones I have had contact with are stable, persistent, and eager. After their school experience, they get good jobs in gas stations, on delivery trucks, and in some of the routine, mechanical trades. I have found that they develop organized traits of reliance, of common sense, of loyalty, and of work, although they do continue to exhibit a consistent childishness—perhaps because in their consciousness “ifs” and “buts” and the flexibility of probability do not exist. They are inexorably inflexible.

The important thing is that they become a substantial and wholly worthwhile contingent of our citizenship. Ruesch and Bowman, Reeves Kennedy and others studied adult groups of such citizens and found them working in congenial jobs of the semi-skilled variety, doing repetitive tasks with success and no monotony, supporting families faithfully, earning an average of fifty dollars per week, going to church, movies, and beaches, making friends, listening to the radio, driving cars with fewer accidents than most of us, sleeping well, living long, enjoying health, avoiding crimes, and voting for our public servants. Such citizens, living such lives, merit the benefit of education during their adolescence.

Therefore, these and many more pupils more or less like these, we shall have to accept in our secondary schools. Academic learning which is necessarily based upon the mental skills of inference, metaphor, and logical deduction is impossible and unprofitable to them. Our curricula which were created for pupils who would vocationally use their capacities of academically trained intelligence are not for them. But they can be educated through an experience in which they must ultimately be involved anyway, and that is the experience of sharing in group purposes. They can learn to use their peculiar endowment for collaboration in some common action. For them the academic fundamentals are neither important, nor attainable, nor even fundamental. For them there are possible however, certain social fundamentals and on these their education is to be based. Through usefulness in group activities, through learning how to follow and participate, through interest in simple occupational routines, they can attain a level of mental health, social feeling, and a measure of social status and economic sufficiency.

ATTITUDES AND TECHNIQUES AID LEARNING

I should say that the primary factor in the whole matter is our willingness and readiness to accept such pupils and our conviction that they belong with us and that we must understand them. It is certainly not easy to accept them and adjust them in our typical high schools. Many teachers, secure and practiced in teaching and seeking the academic values, accept them only with resentment and the conviction that they impede the learning of the normal pupils. The operative environments of our typical high schools, the schedule,

the grading, the Carnegie Unit system, certainly make their adjustment difficult. And yet, somehow, they must be provided for in an operational environment which involves co-operative rather than individual experience, which provides an organization for mutual help and planning, and which involves above all some wide procedures that will lead to their understanding of themselves and their willingness to make the most of themselves as they are.

This means, of course, that school programs for the assorted types of students that comprise the slow learning group must be based upon the techniques of guidance for social and personal adjustment, rather than the more traditional and didactic technique of instruction. Obviously these slow-learners constitute a problem, especially a problem to themselves, a problem of adjustment to their own attitudes, nature, and constitutionality. Their education, therefore, must be the employment of every possible resource to make them aware of their problem, eager to solve it, and co-operative toward the help that teachers can give. This, of course, is but a definition of guidance in operation.

The school program, it would seem, should be in the most ingenious ways related to the primary goal of job seeking, finding, and keeping. This does not mean necessarily that these students should be given vocational training. The semi-skilled vocations in which they will engage, will in all probability be too simple to need any formal or extensive training. But their school program should center about the meaning, the psychology, the setting of occupational life, since in this way a powerful motive is created. The stage, so to speak, should be occupationally set and all occupational resources of the school and community should be tapped.

Certainly the same old subjects cannot be taught the slow-learner. Tedious remedial programs in reading and in arithmetic which elevate the slow-learner's achievement painfully by six months are hardly worth-while. The improvement is mechanical and as a rule non-functional. The reading interests are not as a rule even slightly elevated.

Continual insistence upon teaching skills in which the slow-learner cannot possibly succeed keeps him immature, unconfident, and neurotic in personality. For the slow-learner the objective must be the organization and the adoption of some purpose, some goal close to the everyday life of the pupil; a purpose which can involve an integration of the pupil's interest, will and effort; a purpose which he can realize and which will promote hard work and promise success.

The daily pattern of household duties, the monitorial needs of the school, the repair and maintenance needs of the school, the homely family duties, the tensions and conflicts between human groups, the simple manipulative skills and processes, the problem of finding recreation, dress and per-

personal grooming, the keeping of the simple family budget, the orientation and decoration of the home, saving, spending, the problems of communal and religious life, the often devastating problems of personal psychology,—about such suggestions and out of them are programs for the slow-learner to be built. In short, it is up to the guidance technique of each school to use every available testing and diagnostic procedure to help the slow-learners plan a program realistic to themselves and possible and profitable of attainment.

The most that we can say about such groups is to admit that they are what they are but that we are helping them to become normal, well-adjusted boys and girls in the school, and that they are achieving up to capacity in experiences suitable for them. We must remember that at present these low groups seldom taste success. They become discouraged and, because school is not vital to them, they drop out. We must, therefore, make provisions for these pupils, not by way of vocational training, since it is estimated that about fifty per cent of the jobs they will hold will not require any special training. Since they are to hold these routine jobs, the schools must provide some kind of experience that will help their lives become meaningful and satisfying. Here it is that the guidance setup in a school takes on a primary responsibility. It is the guidance department that must help these pupils find activities within their capacity, such activities as will add to the color of their lives. Leisure time activities, play, recreation, knowledge of self, awareness of things about them, knowledge of their community life, study of family responsibilities, and the thousand and one homespun duties and responsibilities and chores close to the business and bosoms of us all are the threads out of which their school experience is to be spun.

In other words, their school experience is not to be a standard or accepted routine of any kind of learning but rather a program of guidance and help in making themselves happier, more alive and alert, more responsible and dutiful, and more at home with themselves and others.

RESPONSIBILITY FOR GUIDANCE DEPARTMENT

Here is a primary responsibility for the guidance department in a secondary school. It must locate and identify those slow-learners and it must make a study of their interests, patterns, their ability levels, their curiosities, their play aptitudes, their needs. Then the department must make recommendations to the school administration and instructional staff as to the experience procedure to be followed. It is not our province to discuss the type of testing that the counselors should do. One word of caution, however, is relevant. It has been found that pupil's statements of their interests are not at all dependable but are influenced by all sorts of extraneous facts. Likewise the validity of many of the interest tests usually given, such for instance, as the occupational inventories or Kuder Preference

Test is for many reasons open to question. It is very difficult as we all know to find norms and criteria for measuring the validity of these tests and there is often a grave discrepancy between interests that pupils claim and interests as indicated on test scores. Perhaps the best things to say is that the counselor must use every means and resource available—testing, conference, observation, cumulative record, discussion with parents, visiting of homes, to obtain an appraisal of students which will lead to the establishment of a wise and appropriate school program.

Counselors must plan for the betterment of the active interests of the slow-learner. They must build up motives, drives, enthusiasm, they must work with all their ingenuity to avoid frustration, defeat, and often a latent feeling of vengeance against the school.

EDUCATIVE INSTRUMENTALITIES

When these pupils are accepted in secondary schools, the school clubs, the bands, the patrols, the clean-up squads, the lawn and ground squads, the cafeteria patrols, athletic teams, are all possible instrumentalities of their education. In these they can find educational outcomes in the way of developing traits, attitudes, purposes, and satisfactions that will give them a sense of integrated personality.

But this is not to say that academic studies should be forbidden them. The academic studies, however, should be adjusted and conditioned to their verified interests and capacities. Three major interests are to be recommended: (1) Drills in the simple fundamentals of calculation, expression, and communication, adjusted to simple, practical objectives, and as much as possible, related to the common interests of the pupils. (2) The study of biography of the great and good so that pupils may identify themselves and find themselves as they seek to emulate objects of their hero-worship. (3) Even science and mathematics—but studies in these areas should be studies of the practical concerns that relate to their lives and not a concern with what Whitehead calls "inert ideas" which they cannot handle. But the most important of all their studies should involve the manipulation of concrete life situations and their discussion, through motion pictures, through puppetry, and through art, those life situations that have to do with marriage, occupations, recreation, friendships, and the personal problems that so trouble the souls of these boys and girls.

Particularly the experiences of art and music offer possibilities of satisfaction and success. We have perhaps made too much in this country of affording creative experiences in art and music, and particularly in interpretive dancing, to those especially gifted in these fields. As a matter of fact many pupils of quite inferior academic intelligence are quite able to enjoy, without rationalization and without verbal criticism, it is true, the experiences

of art and music. I have seen students, dull and inarticulate verbally, achieve magnificent expression and communication through the dance. I have also seen boys and girls of dull, inarticulate academic intelligence achieve remarkable success in vocal and instrumental performance, once methods appropriate to their intelligence were developed. I have seen a boy with an I. Q. of 65, a mathematical age of 3.5, a reading age of 3.4, and 16 years old, thrill a vast assembly of adults with his solo singing. Music and art can be made experiences of great educational and personal significance for these pupils.

THE NEWARK PLAN FOR THE SLOW LEARNER

In my own school we have developed something of a unique setup which I believe has met with some measure of success. In our city of Newark there are approximately 2100 pupils either mentally or physically so handicapped that they are receiving their schooling in special schools organized for them. In these elementary schools pupils are sent early in their fourth or fifth school years, after their school progress and special testing reveal their inadequacies. Here they receive under the Department of Special Education an adequate schooling after the pattern I have described. Nine years ago, in Cleveland Junior High School, we set up a secondary experience for selected graduates of those special elementary schools. Our program works in this way: (1) Fifty boys and girls, graduates especially selected from these special schools, are sent to us for entrance each term. In general, they answer the following description: I.Q. 60 to 70; RG 3 to 4 years; Ar. G. 3 to 4 years; social maturity on various inventories 80 and up; biologically and physically above average maturity; of demonstrated ambition and will, with parents' interest. (2) When these boys and girls come to us, by observation, by various standardized interest tests, by consultation with the school physician, we establish an accounting of each pupil's background, tests, achievements. (3) When these pupils come, they are received by a special teacher licensed to handle classes in special education on the secondary level, and this teacher acts as counselor, guide, adviser, and in consultative capacity to these pupils. (4) This teacher, with the school head counselor and vice-principal, prepares a special schedule for each one of these pupils in conformity with what we know about the pupil. The schedule provides for all types of experiences available within our school, such as patrol, messenger, band, lawn improvement, etc. (5) At first the special teacher keeps the pupils with her for a good part of the day; in various ways activating them to the operations and activities of the school and working with them on the simple communicative skills. (6) This special teacher then begins increasingly to farm out pupils during parts of the day to various teachers. Some pupils are given experience in tailoring, cooking, printing, music, art, and some who show possibilities are put into academic classes. (7) In

all cases, the pupils are watched carefully by the teacher-specialist, who acts as liaison between them and their teachers and who is constantly aware of problems that may arise and who constantly makes advisable adjustments. (8) At the end of one year, every pupil, if he has been with us on a satisfactory basis of school membership, is given a special certificate testifying to his completion of a special course. (9) Those who do succeed in earning academic credit are allowed such credit on their transcripts and in such cases when full ninth year credit is earned, they are permitted to enter a senior high school. (10) In senior high school they are visited occasionally by the psychologist who selected them originally for entrance into our school, and help is offered as needed. (11) We have not had too much success in graduating students from the senior high school. When they are called upon to engage in a full program of academic work they naturally fail. We do have records of only a few pupils who have succeeded in senior high schools.

Our important success has been in keeping through their 16th year in a secondary school environment suitable to their maturity, such boys and girls who previously would have been unceremoniously rejected from school experiences. These boys and girls took full part in our school life, in the orchestra, the clubs, and all the extra classroom activities. They are never made to feel unwanted or rejected. They participate profitably in the educational school contacts and activities, in the common interests and group projects; they play in the school orchestra, serve on the patrol, sing in the chorus, join in the clubs, play on the teams. They grow through the social life of the school and contribute to the social life. They establish and nurture fine friendships with other pupils. They are prized and appreciated by teachers; they are conscious of no stigmatized evidence of demarcation or rejection.

Their coming has done fine things for our teaching staff who now are ready to believe that the high school cannot afford to be a selective institution, that it must assume the responsibility of educating our total generation. Our teachers are, through these pupils, realizing how much more important it is to practice democracy and tolerance and co-operation than to spell them. They are learning that pupils of low I.Q.'s, who cannot handle general concepts, who cannot indulge in logical thinking, who cannot calculate in symbols, can learn to live lives of rich usefulness and fine social contributions. We have all learned that the valuable things in high school are those contacts and interests we used to call extra-curricular, and that we now recognize as the social fundamentals. In these, pupils of low I.Q. are particularly successful.

We found that in increasing numbers parents are demanding for their "slow learning" children the opportunity to attend a school in a secondary climate or environment. As a matter of fact, in one other junior high school,

and in a senior high school, similar classes have been established. In the other junior high school, the class of Binét pupils is organized on the seventh year level, while in Cleveland Junior High School the class is organized on the ninth year level. Indications are that similar opportunities for secondary experience for pupils of this type will be extended in Newark high schools as time goes on. At the present time, we are working on a plan to make more effective the placement of such pupils in the senior high schools after they are promoted by us. This plan will consider the facilities, the climate, the social constituency, the course offerings, the extra classroom opportunities of the various senior high schools, and on such a basis of consideration will seek to place the "slow learner" where his acceptance will be most profitable to him. One of our difficult problems is still the reluctance of the senior high school teachers to accept such pupils and make the necessary modifications of goal, standard, value, and attitude.

CONCLUSION

In concluding, I am taking the somewhat dramatic liberty of presenting the results of our experience in twelve resolutions.

1. We feel increasing conviction that our national public welfare will demand extended schooling for all possible youth. If our schools can not accept and carry out this responsibility, it will be delegated to other and more receptive social agencies.
2. Education is not alone a program of training for knowledge and skill, but it is as well a program of socialized experience that helps organize a person's physical, mental, and emotional equipment toward some accepted social purpose.
3. The social fundamentals of secondary education are not academic achievements, but development of such traits as will permit the youth to participate on a level possible to him in the common responsibilities of community life.
4. For pupils whose wilful choice, constitutional handicap, or unique equipment makes academic achievement unprofitable, provision must be made through purposeful programs of work-experience, group association, collective undertakings, school community service.
5. Such unique pupils must be studied to determine possible motives, interests, abilities, wishes, and needs about which to orient a program of secondary education.
6. The most decisive educational need of the unique adolescent is help in his social adjustment and development, specifically in his organization of such character traits as work-habits, home participation, moral practices, common fellowship, patterns of social aggression, etc.

7. All appropriate school and community resources, interests, agencies, activities, and employments should be exploited in constructing school programs for such pupils. Typical curriculum revisions which replace, regrade, abbreviate, simplify, or modify traditional academic material will not help.

8. Remedial programs to raise the level of achievement in reading, arithmetic, or the common branches for such unique pupils simply produce temporary, mechanical improvement which has no effect or value in their daily lives.

9. Such pupils must join in planning their own programs since in such planning they may reach a wholesome self-esteem and self-appraisal and may learn to think practically, realistically, and constructively.

10. Teachers of such pupils must be frank enthusiasts and missionaries with the proper attitude, philosophy, and temperament to engage in the moral adventure of educating these pupils.

11. Education for the great generation of youth who will enter our secondary school must be of the new order; organization of personality rather than systems of knowledge; adjustment to life responsibilities rather than training in skills; experience in collaborative life rather than perfection in spelling and grammar; the language arts for the sake of social relationships rather than for the sake of correctness.

12. Such of these pupils as develop sufficient in organized drives, determination, and work-habits and definitely wish to proceed into traditional academic programs, shall be accepted with appropriate provisions and considerations.

What Program for the Slow Learner?

MRS. HORTENSE H. LEVISOHN

THE twenty per cent—and more—of our student bodies in American high schools who are slow learners deserve, as do the other seventy-five or eighty per cent, the best that we can give them of education suited to their abilities, needs, and purposes and designed to prepare them for happy, well-rounded, civilly competent, economically self-sufficient living in our democracy. While we know that in our school days the low-ability pupils now swarming into our secondary schools were never permitted to go as far as the upper grades of elementary school, we have them with us in high school now, and we owe an obligation to them, to the state, and to society to give them as desirable an education as they are able to take. Our high-school student of whatever ability is an individual, a member of society, a future

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worker, and a potential voter. The future of our democracy demands that we study his ability, his needs, his capacities, his goals and that we provide for him that special education "best adapted to his abilities and in the amount calculated to develop his maximum usefulness to himself, his community, and society."

The time has passed for inveighing against the lower schools for sending to the senior high schools pupils who cannot read and calculate up to grade level, pupils whose intelligence test scores indicate mental retardation. We can all agree that serious maladjustment results from failing the slow learner term after term in elementary school so that the big boy of sixteen finds himself in a class of twelve-year olds. Thus, instead of molding him for society, we tend to turn him against it with all the psychological maladjustment and delinquency that such treatment inspires. The mental retardate is not necessarily socially or emotionally retarded. He needs association with his contemporaries; he needs recognition for whatever achievement his limited capacities and effort make possible. Because educators have come to understand his needs, the slow learner is promoted more or less chronologically into junior high school and thence to senior high school to profit or to fail to profit from whatever education is made available to him. We have the slow learners and the mentally retarded with us in high school. We must take them as they are and where they are. We must recognize that they are different from the traditional college-bound high school students and, in light of their differences, we must provide for them an education differing from the traditional college-entrance curriculum, differing from the commercial course with the demanding skills of stenography and accounting, and differing as well from the typical vocational curriculum preparing for the skilled occupations.

Nonschool people are not shocked by the limited potentialities of the mentally retarded as are we teachers in our professional capacities. We are perfectly accustomed to the limited mentality of people we see about us much of the day—the domestic, the laundry worker, the elevator operator, the waiter, the busboy, the garage attendant, the salesman, the worker in many semi-skilled and unskilled occupations. We know that these people are not mental giants. We are accustomed to the cliché, "If he were an Einstein, he wouldn't be a busboy." We know that, by and large, they are perfectly acceptable people doing their share of the world's work. It is only in our professional capacities that we are shocked by low ability. The reason for our displeasure is doubtless the discomfort in our professional lives caused by the necessity of making special provision for the non-academic pupils who cannot profit by our traditional curriculum. The teacher who complains, "Such students do not belong in high school," is merely expressing her discomfort because she realizes that her materials and meth-

ods do not work with slow learners. Such a teacher needs to modify her materials and practices for the low-ability pupils who are likely to become an increasingly larger percentage of our high school populations. Such a teacher needs supervisory guidance for she has not yet learned that, inasmuch as the secondary school has become a common school for all youth, the non-academic pupils have as much right in the high school as have the academic.

We all agree in theory that some kind of different education must be provided for slow learners, but, as usual, educational practice lags far behind theory. Years ago, after complaining about the poor results of the teaching of reading in the lower schools, we agreed in theory that something had to be done for the retarded readers in high school. Ultimately we took steps to provide remedial instruction in reading, only to find that remedial work in arithmetic was also required. By the time we implemented that need, we discovered that large numbers of pupils retarded in all mental operations were forming at least one-fifth of our high school population. Theoretically, we agreed that the need had to be met, but practical programs were slow to emerge.

PROVISIONS OF NEW YORK CITY FOR EDUCATING THE SLOW LEARNER

I should like to describe for you two ways in which we in New York City are trying to make provision for the educational needs of the slow learner. Because the educationally retarded are a major problem in my own school and because I am most familiar with our practices, I shall try to sketch for you the evolving program at Girls High School, Brooklyn, New York.

Some years ago the High School Division of our New York City Board of Education, recognizing the necessity of a modified course for slow learners, established our so-called general diploma. The general diploma, as distinct from the academic and commercial diploma, was to be awarded to pupils who completed a modified course freed from the demands of college-entrance requirements, from the demands of our state or Regents examinations required for academic or commercial diplomas, and from the demands of rigid subject sequences. Each high school was to be free to set up its own general courses in accordance with the needs and abilities of its slow learners. And so, many years before I ever entered its doors, our school began to experiment with the general course. Experimentation followed the usual pattern: at first, the general courses were probably merely watered-down versions of the regular courses; then came greater modification; and finally the need indicated complete differentiation. Experimentation and evolution are still going on as they must in any system that is geared to changing needs.

Our general course—intended primarily for students of I.Q. below 85—follows New York State regulations in regard to the constants: four years of English, three years of social studies, one year of general science, one year of health teaching, four years of health education—hygiene, health service, and first aid—art appreciation, music appreciation, and human relations. The required major subjects—English, social studies, and general science—are the same for all diplomas, but the content and methodology differ for the general students. We maintain separate streams: the regular academic or commercial stream, an honors stream where possible, and a general stream. The classes in English, social studies, and general science for general students are separate classes with differentiated courses of study. In addition to the constants, flexible sequences of electives are open to the general students in such fields as differential biology, applied chemistry, laboratory techniques, homemaking, foods, clothing, business subjects, art, and music. For instance, a girl who eventually hopes to qualify for work as a practical nurse or as a laboratory technician might elect sequences in the differentiated science courses and homemaking. A girl who wishes to prepare for general office work or retailing might elect differentiated business subjects, such as business arithmetic, record-keeping, typing, clerical office practice, retail stores service, and business machines. We find that many of our slow learners—as well as many of their brighter sisters—are gifted in music or in art, and so, in addition to the required appreciation courses, we maintain electives in music, such as choral ensemble, orchestra, instrumental training and practice, music theory, sight singing, and electives in art such as ceramics, drawing, painting, business art, poster, costume design, costume illustration, and interior decoration. Two years ago we introduced a new special art course with double periods a day for the four years to give girls training and experience in the various media and fields of art work.

When the general diploma was initiated, the general course was intended to be such a course as the nonacademic, low-ability pupils might, with proper attendance and effort, pass successfully. That the general course at Girls High School is meeting that requirement is evident in many ways. Every term we note in the records of our graduating class girls with I.Q's in the seventies and even the sixties who have completed the general course successfully and with no retardation. The percentage of drop-outs has been reduced, and the girls in the general course appear to be happy, poised, and mannerly. Almost without exception they feel that they are accomplishing a great deal, that their efforts are being rewarded, and that they have their full stake in the life of the school, which they share with all the students in such activities as assemblies, the extra-curriculum, health education, art, music, and student government. Follow-up through our placement counselor

indicates that they maintain themselves well in employment. Some of them go on to additional training in such schools as the two-year New York State Institute of Applied Arts and Sciences and the two-year Fashion Institute of Technology, private art, music, and business schools, and the evening high school maintained in our building. We know that we are affording them far more in the way of appropriate training, sources of satisfaction, and life adjustment education than we could possibly offer them without the differentiated general course.

Problems, of course, are implicit in any such scheme. Our main problem is one of guidance. Girls are placed in the general course on the basis of the elementary school records, teachers' observations, and the results of standardized intelligence tests, reading tests, and arithmetic tests administered just before entrance to our school. While in the majority of cases there is no objection to placement in the general course, such objection as there is from students and parents is protracted and vociferous. So often we find that the lower the ability the higher the ambition on the part of pupils and parents. Parents of children with I.Q.'s in the seventies often insist that their children are to become doctors, lawyers, teachers, or at the least registered nurses. Any such appeal coming from general pupils and their parents is always for the academic course leading to college entrance and for the subjects which to them are apparently the badges of gentility and learning, namely, Latin and algebra. All our guidance ability is marshalled to deal with such objections. Pupils and parents are led to recognize individual abilities and disabilities, the values of the general course, and the virtues of occupations other than the professions. Flexibility is maintained in shifting pupils from the general to the academic or commercial course, and special abilities in the generally non-academic student may cause her to be in general classes in all her major subjects except for the one in which she shows greater ability.

A little more than a year ago, two special classes of twenty-two pupils each were organized in our school by a bureau of our school system, the Bureau for Children with Retarded Mental Development, popularly known as C.R.M.D. The C.R.M.D. Bureau has for several years operated classes in the elementary and junior high schools and more recently has begun work in the senior high schools. For the high school classes, students are selected on the basis of previous records and scores on standardized tests in intelligence, reading, and arithmetic. Mr. Richard H. Hungerford, the director of the C.R.M.D. Bureau, defines the non-academic pupils as those who at the age of fifteen are unable to read at a sixth grade level with interest and with profit. I.Q.'s in these classes range from 50 to 80, and reading and arithmetic scores are correspondingly low. The C.R.M.D. teachers are specially trained, experienced in handling the retarded pupil, and active in

further in-service training. The students remain with the C.R.M.D. teachers daily for home-room activities, guidance, and three hours of class work. They join with the rest of the school in assemblies, extra-curricular activities, student government, health education, music, and one practical arts shop project. The three hours spent daily with the C.R.M.D. teacher are devoted to such activities in social studies, English, arithmetic, guidance, occupational information, and vocational skills as are related to the core for the year. The cores for the four high school years are as follows:

First year—Study of Job Areas

Second year—Choosing, Getting, and Holding a Job

Third year—Spending One's Income Wisely

Fourth year—The Citizen as Worker and Social Being

The course is called occupational education, and the major effort is directed toward acquainting the students with large families of occupations with concentrated attention on the low-level jobs for which the slow learners can hope to prepare themselves. Originally the plan was to place the students in jobs after their sixteenth birthdays and give them continued guidance along the way. In this past year, however, results of the course in our own school have been so good and the holding power of the course so great that we hope that the students will complete the four years in our school either in the C.R.M.D. classes or in our general, non-academic course and be graduated with general diplomas.

COLLATE MATERIALS FOR THE SLOW LEARNER

The two foregoing plans for slow learners—the general course evolving experimentally on the individual-school basis and the C.R.M.D. course—have been developing independently. The various professional associations in New York City have for many years worked on the problem of the slow learner and developed philosophies and syllabi. Now there has been started a concerted effort from headquarters to collate all the materials prepared for slow learners by the individual schools, the C.R.M.D. Bureau, and the city professional associations. Two teachers in each of a dozen schools have volunteered to engage in concentrated experimentation in materials and methodologies with small classes of slow learners. A large committee will collect the information thus empirically gathered, together with the C.R.M.D. occupational training materials and the existing general courses as developed by the individual schools. Thus it is hoped that the best materials and practices may be collated to form the basis of a curriculum for slow learners of the city.

Official curricula often go to press as the last word on the subject, but changes are sometimes indicated even before they reach the hands of teachers. The human being is not static, and education cannot be a static science.

The average calibre of the slow learner in high school has changed markedly in the last few years; therefore, the appropriate education of slow learners must likewise change. Official curricula kept up to date can point the way, but the classroom implementation must in the last analysis be left to the classroom teacher. We teachers do not learn so much by books and lectures and courses and printed curricula; like our pupils, we learn by doing. We learn the methods and materials most rewarding for slow learners by trying them out in the classroom.

METHODOLOGY

Especially with slow learners, whatever method *works* in actual classroom practice is probably best. So far as general methodology is concerned, methods that work with a bright class probably will, with proper modifications, work just as well with a normal class or a slow class. From what we know of the average nature and limitations of the slow learner, we may conclude that he can profit in general from much the same methodology, modified as to degree and detail, as the normal or the bright student. The bright can profit by attention to the graphic and specific, the slow learner profits by a greater use of the graphic and specific. The bright can profit by audio-visual aids, excursions, first-hand experiences in doing; the slow learner requires an even greater use of such devices. The bright need training in reasoning and communication skills; the slow learner because of his inferior ability needs this training even more in order to prepare him for useful adulthood. The bright need attention to health and social development; so does the slow learner. So far as the materials of instruction are concerned, experiences designed to attain all the major purposes of education—such as those listed in *Education for All American Youth* and *Life Adjustment Education for Every Youth*—must be provided for pupils of every kind and degree of ability, but there are areas of our traditional high-school curriculum—such as foreign language, algebra, geometry—which pupils of very limited ability should not be obliged to pursue.

CONCLUSION

Give the slow learners small classes, sympathetic and understanding teachers, plenty of guidance, opportunities to succeed, an interesting and useful education at a rate commensurate with their capacities, and you will be likely to find them remaining in school until graduation, finding places in the world of work, and becoming substantial citizens of our democracy.

Otto E. Buss, Principal, Van Nuys Junior High School, Van Nuys, California; Vern J. Rice, Principal, Leuzinger High School, Lawndale, California; and Mrs. Gladys T. Peterson, Principal, Randall Junior High School, Washington, D. C., served as discussants.

Group III—Parlor D

CHAIRMAN: *Thomas H. Briggs*, Director, Consumer Education Study, National Association of Secondary-School Principals, Washington, D. C.; Emeritus Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, New York

How Can Consumer Education Improve Our Instructional Program?

JOHN H. SHANTZ

IT has been said frequently of late, that the average American is economically illiterate. In a recent issue of the *Readers Digest*, William Hard goes further and asserts that even preachers and teachers are startlingly misinformed on important economic facts. There is at least some truth in such assertions—perhaps nowhere more true than in the field of consumer education.

Rock Island Senior High School has recognized the need for such education. Our Home Economics classes, naturally, emphasize training in thrifty buying and wise consumption. In our Economics and American Problems courses, advertising and consumer problems have been among the subjects stressed. For this work, some text and reference material has been used, including magazine references and consumers' guides. These have been of value, but not entirely satisfactory. Much of the material is too advanced for secondary school pupils; much was not interesting; a great deal of the information was specific as to the purchase and use of definite commodities, rather than helping to establish general principles and a ground work for consumer education.

The pamphlets of the Consumer Education Series (Consumer Education Study, of the National Association of Secondary School Principals), have been, therefore, just what we have been looking for. They were compiled and revised after advice from representatives of education, industry, labor, agriculture, and women's groups. The pamphlets run in length, from 56 to about 150 pages. Each of the two pamphlets forms a separate unit: *The Modern American Consumer*, *Learning to Use Advertising*, *Time on Your Hands*, *Investing in Yourself*, *Consumer and the Law*, *Using Standards and Labels*, *Managing Your Money*, *Buying Insurance*, *Using Consumer Credit*, *Investing in Health*, *Effective Shopping*, with other units in preparation.

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One advantage of such pamphlet material is its flexibility. Depending on the nature of the course, and other considerations, some of the pamphlets, or parts thereof, can be used, others omitted. They are of convenient size. Each unit can be separately revised and expanded. They can be employed in various ways. And pupils often find well-written pamphlets more attractive and interesting than textbooks, perhaps because of a natural antipathy to the word "text."

We think the pamphlets of the Consumer Education Series are attractive and interesting. They contain numerous illustrations, many of a humorous slant; charts are good, and well chosen. Large, clear type is used, arranged in the modern double column page. The pamphlets are well written, adapted generally to the high school level. The style is clear. The material appeals to the interests of secondary pupils; and the pamphlets, without being slangy or flippant, are often chatty and informal—they talk the language of high school pupils.

As an example of the interesting style, take the beginning of Chapter I in *Learning to Use Advertising*, entitled "All the World's a Signboard:"

Carl Sandburg quoted a little girl:

"Papa, what is the moon supposed to advertise?"

Because, like her, we've grown up surrounded by advertisements. The newspapers are full of them; even when you start to read a comic strip it may turn into a sales talk for somebody's laundry soap. In most magazines each story starts near the front, then says, "Continued on page," to lead you past page after page of beautiful pictures of automobiles, dresses, and what not. Almost daily the postman brings "direct mail" advertising circulars, while in the towns and cities boys are hired to drop dodgers and sales bills ("throw-aways," the trade calls them) on all the front porches.

The packages in which your goods are wrapped are designed to attract you. The bottles in which milk is delivered and the glasses you drink from at the soda fountain carry an advertising message. The truck in which deliveries are made has an advertisement of the store painted on its sides, and when you open your packages you may find sales talks for other goods sold by the same firm. Even the monthly statement from the store may include ads.

In every city Main Street is brilliant with show windows and signs. Even in the country the highways are lined with billboards and smaller signs; the telephone posts are picture galleries of last year's candidates; and every few miles a barn roof proclaims the virtues of somebody's pills or powders—

What it all adds up to is that we are the most "advertised-at" people the world has ever seen. And that is important because it affects the way we think and live.

The treatment of the subjects selected is factual, impartial, and up-to-date. No attempt is made to market any particular product or brand of goods. As the preface of some pamphlets states, "These units, based on objective data, do not attempt either to promote the interests of producers and sellers or to revolutionize our economic system."

CONSUMER EDUCATION SERIES IN ACCORD WITH PEDAGOGY

In accord with good pedagogy, the series has frequent previews as well as pauses to survey the ground already covered. There are abundant references; "sources of information" and "where to write" are scattered throughout. Another valuable feature is the large number of practical and interesting "suggested activities."

USE OF CONSUMER EDUCATION SERIES IN ROCK ISLAND

Our high school has made use of the Consumer Education Series in three departments so far—home economics, science, and social studies. The home economics classes have made especial use of *Managing Your Money*, in connection with household expenses and family budgeting. The pamphlet was used as a basis for the forming of actual budgets, by students, for families of "average income" and for their own families. Several points emerged from this study. One was that many students tend to overestimate their parents' incomes, either through ignorance or a desire to "show off." Another is the small part children, and some wives, play in determining budget-making or the spending of money. Still another, the indifference of many families to budgeting at all.

In our science department, the Health classes have made use of the pamphlet, *Investing in Your Health*. This is a small pamphlet, and was used largely for its suggested topics for investigation and discussion questions, and for its excellent list of references and its bibliography. As the preface states, "this booklet concentrates upon a relatively small number of especially important problems. Since full discussion of even these topics would make a large volume, and since a great many books and pamphlets are already available, we have not presented a full treatment here. We have, instead, given a brief introductory discussion of each topic, showing why it is important and what are the chief problems to be solved. Then—we have analyzed each topic into its significant sub-problems, and listed references for further study. Each class may go as far as it chooses in the use of these references, which are of four types—": Basic references; free and inexpensive materials (from government agencies, commercial firms, etc.); related readings; background references for the teacher.

Our Economics and American Problems course made use especially of five of the pamphlets: *The Modern American Consumer*, *Learning to Use Advertising*, *Using Standards and Labels*; *Managing Your Money*, and *Buying Insurance*.

The Modern American Consumer, an introductory unit, was employed in economics as an introduction to consumer problems and the value of consumer education. While much of the latter part of the pamphlet is

taken up with references and teaching aids for the instructor, the early chapters proved interesting and stimulating for students. These chapters comprised: (1) "Getting Our Bearings" in the modern economic world; (2) "Surveying the Rocks on Our Route;" and (3) "Charting Our Course" at the beginning of consumer study.

The booklets on Advertising and Insurance were used by our Economics classes in a number of ways:

1. Reading portions with the class, and discussing significant points.
2. Reading by the class with later summarization and discussion.
3. Consideration of "Questions for Discussion," with class discussions or using the panel method.
4. Floor talks and written reports.
5. Occasional summaries by the teacher.
6. Short written quizzes.
7. Unit tests, not standardized, but designed to measure interpretations and attitudes as well as facts learned.

Between two and three weeks were given each of these units. This made necessary the condensing of other parts of the course. Less attention was given to classical economic theory and such subjects as foreign exchange and some money problems. By doing this, we felt the course had becoming more alive and more realistic.

The pamphlets dealing with Advertising and Insurance are also employed in our American Problems classes. One of the units of this course is Public Opinion and Propaganda. We might almost say that advertising and propaganda are synonymous. In the booklet on Advertising we find many examples of advertising propaganda, good and bad, effective and ineffectual. We learn that advertising, while often wasteful, and sometimes misleading, may also be of tremendous social value.

The pamphlet on Insurance has an excellent description and analysis of our social security set-up, including the workman's compensation program, unemployment compensation, "old age and survivors' insurance," health insurance, government life insurance for servicemen. Mention is also made of state old age assistance and other pension programs. This material we found valuable in our discussion of the problem of the aged, a problem growing more urgent as the average span of life increases. The pamphlet discussions make clear the place of social security, broadly speaking, in our economic and social life. Other chapters on insurance added much material for this problem of old age and financial provision for it. In fact, the pamphlet as a whole is one of the best clear analyses of the insurance question I have seen. There are case studies, and a comprehensive glossary of insurance terms.

The pamphlet, *Managing Your Money*, has much material for Economics, particularly for topics such as savings and thrift, banking and credit, handling money, and various forms of investments. The approach throughout is personal and practical.

Using Standards and Labels has furnished much material for the teacher although we have not as yet ordered any quantity of these pamphlets. Some use was made of this booklet for student reports. The last 30 pages, "Tomorrow's Labeling," is an exhaustive discussion of descriptive and grade labeling. We could not afford time to go into this thoroughly, but the subject seems of considerable value. One who carries through this study will have a better understanding of labeling than most adults ever secure.

RECOMMENDATION FOR CONSUMER EDUCATION SERIES

On the whole, we consider the series very much worth while, and have found the units interesting and stimulating as aids to our teaching. While our use of the pamphlets has been somewhat scattered, we have made employment of them in our social studies courses. I should like to hear the experience of someone who has used the series consecutively, as the basis for a semester's work in Consumer Education, or perhaps a year's work. Such an arrangement would not at present be practical in our high school; but it would be worth trying if conditions permitted.

Perhaps the best recommendation for the pamphlets is that students often ask to take them home, or to the study halls, for further reading. However, with our system of long periods (56 minutes) and supervised study, the booklets of the series have been used mostly in the classroom.

We endorse the series as an excellent piece of work in its field, and one that has been needed for some time.

How Can Consumer Education Improve Our Instructional Program?

ROBERT T. STICKLER

PROVISO Township High School of Maywood, Illinois, is using the Consumer Education Series publications of the Consumer Education Study of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals as basic text material for a one-semester course in "Money Management." First offered

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in 1947, "Money Management" is an elective for sophomores, juniors and seniors. Classes consist of sophomores and juniors, or juniors and seniors—the three are not mixed in any one group. Six Consumer Education Series pamphlets form the backbone of the course on this approximate schedule:

<i>Weeks</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>Unit</i>
1-3	7	<i>Managing Your Money</i>
4-6	9	<i>Using Consumer Credit</i>
7-9	5	<i>The Consumer and The Law</i>
10-12	8	<i>Buying Insurance</i>
13-15	2	<i>Learning to Use Advertising</i>
16-18	6	<i>Using Standards and Labels</i>

Shields-Wilson *Consumer Economic Problems* (Third Edition) supplements the series: Chapter IX for the unit on "Learning to Use Advertising" and Part IV "Making Specific Purchases" for the unit on "Using Standards and Labels." Of the many supplemental pamphlets and leaflets used, two series have proved most valuable—*Public Affairs Pamphlets* from Public Affairs Committee, Inc., 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20, N. Y., and *Facts You Should Know* from the Educational Division of the Better Business Bureau in the nearest large city.

These are the most useful titles of the *Public Affairs Pamphlets*: No. 5, *Credit for Consumers*; No. 25, *Machine and Tomorrow's World*; No. 39, *Loan Sharks and Their Victims*; No. 61, *Installment Selling—Pros and Cons*; No. 62, *How to Buy Life Insurance*; No. 84, *Jobs and Security for Tomorrow*; and No. 109, *Gyps and Swindles*.

Most helpful of the *Facts You Should Know* series have been those on: *Advertising, Borrowing, Budgeting, Buying or Building a Home, Buying Used Cars, Commercial Banks and Trust Companies, Cosmetics, Domestic Textile Rugs, Furs, Health Cures, Household Pests, Investment Banking, Investment (Trust) Companies, Jewelry, Legal Problems, Life Insurance, Savings, Schemes, Securities, and Security and Commodity Exchanges*.

Leslee J. Bishop, Evanston Township High School, Evanston, Illinois; Jacob F. Zimmerman, Thornton Township High School and Junior College, Harvey, Illinois; George E. Damon, Associate, Consumer Education Study, National Association of Secondary-School Principals, Washington, D. C.; and Alfred C. Jensen, Associate, Consumer Education Study, National Association of Secondary-School Principals, Washington, D. C., served as discussants.

Group IV—Parlor E

CHAIRMAN: *E. Francis Bowditch*, Headmaster, Lake Forest Academy, Lake Forest, Illinois

What Spiritual Values Should Be Included in the Secondary-School Program?

JOHN W. WILSON

THE material contained in this paper lies so deeply in the field of conflicting thinking and strong emotion that a foreword to the main exposition seems in order. The writer wishes to make it clear, regardless of possible interpretations, that no invidious comparison with any organization is intended. The public considers itself a co-ordinate institution in the family of American institutions. All are set up by the people to do the work of the social order. If that order is to be strong, a democratic climate must pervade them all; they must be mutually tolerant, co-operative, and respectful; these must be a core of spiritual values supported by them all, whose acceptance makes the differential between being or not being an acceptable American citizen.

The public school pays tribute to the value and significance of all its sister institutions. Particularly it feels an affinity with and joys in its close relations with the home and the church. If this article seems to put special stress on the importance of the public school, it does not, therefore, imply a derogation of any other institution. Its purpose in this time of confusion and fear when people are reassessing their formalized servants is to state the position and responsibility of public education with respect to the question raised. The public schools are anti no one; they express enmity to none; they extend special favors to none. They exert themselves to be an American institution in which the child of any American can feel at home. They strive to make us one people, undivided and indivisible. They hold that an American citizen must be the *product* of the great spiritual values of his whole culture; religion, science, philosophy, art, and literature; that he must be spiritually stalwart, democratically adequate.

There is a conviction pervading the minds of our people that disaster faces our world unless spiritual insights and controls are made to keep pace with industrial and scientific development;¹ that the total social order

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¹ Liehman, *Joshua, Peace of Mind*, p. 5.
DuNouy, L. *Human Destiny*, p. 153.

is threatened and, therefore, the whole culture should bring the totality of its resources—material, mental, and spiritual—to the solution of the problem. Since our society has deliberately set up the free, tax supported, secular public schools as its agency for channeling its powers and resources to such an end, it turns to them for an answer.² This is one of the most difficult areas in the field of education; yet it is one in which answers must be sought with the firm conviction that, when truth is found, it will work to the best interests of all. Just as an engineer commissioned to build a bridge will assay the problems involved and present the objective conclusions demanded by the facts, so will the writers attempt to meet this situation.

FUNDAMENTAL FACTORS TO BE CONSIDERED

Three factors make a reply difficult. As a people, we are committed to separation of church and state;³ our churches are divided among two hundred fifty-six, more or less warring denominations;⁴ and, finally we have a strong minority whose leadership and a part of whose membership is opposed to public education on principle.⁵ As we move toward a recommendation, let us glance briefly at the history of the development of public education, give some further attention to the obstructions mentioned above, note some solutions being tried, and, finally, offer a proposal.

The American people, committed to the democratic belief that all institutions are established by the people for the sole purpose of serving the people and are answerable absolutely to the people, have established a system of education uniquely their own. They expect at least three services from it. *One*, having invited the peoples of the earth to their shores, they depend upon the public schools to form them into an indissoluble and indistinguishable part of the American whole, making us continuously and forever one people, with a common social pattern, a common culture, and a common united loyalty to the American philosophy of democracy presenting an impregnable front to all authoritarian patterns, regardless of source. *Two*, our peoples are pledged to an equal opportunity for every child to develop to the limit of his potentialities. A public school system alone can redeem this promise. *Three*, the schools are expected to sense cultural lags or weaknesses as they appear and meet their responsibility to eliminate them. The last is the especial concern of this article.

² Thayer, V. T. *Religion in Public Education*, p. 1.

³ Supreme Court Decisions

"*Everson Case*"—February 10, 1947.

"*McCollum Case*"—March 8, 1948.

Thayer, V. T., *op. cit.* p. 126.

⁴ Moehlman, Conrad. *School and Church*. p. 103.

⁵ Blakely, Paul L., S. J., "May an American Oppose the Public School?"

THREE R'S NOT SOLE CONCERN OF EDUCATION

Once it was felt the three "R's" were the sole concern of public education. Since, it has been compelled to expand its purpose to include preparation for full life adjustment. One of the earliest and best statements of this recognition was the "Seven Cardinal Principles." Nothing is more fully documented than that layman and schoolman alike consider it the task of the public schools to prepare youth for life, the good life, the full, rounded life. When crime waves appear, citizenship is given greater stress; when divorces soar and home life is threatened, worthy home membership and better family relations enter the classroom; when authoritarian governments and institutions threaten, democracy is stressed with ever greater force. What is more natural than that society, convinced that existing procedures have failed to supply the needed spiritual growths in its citizenry, should turn to its schools?

OPPOSITION

To move in a new direction, or more correctly in this case, do the same things but do them more rapidly and on a broader base, is always attended with difficulty and opposition. Let us start with the minority opposition. It comes largely from a single source.⁶ It is powerful and intelligent. It charges the public schools with being "Godless" and anti-religious, therefore, unfit to teach the children of its communicants; that the very title "secular" is a self-condemning admission of the charge; that spiritual sterility, in so far as it affects America, is the result of our being a public school product. Let us consider them in order.

The schools are "Godless," anti-religious.⁷ This charge has been answered conclusively by Moehlman, Thayer, Oxnam, and a host of others.⁸ But the most unanswerable evidence is the classroom itself; the teaching personnel is overwhelmingly religious, representing all faiths; the curriculum is shot through and through with the great spiritual values of the whole culture including religion;⁹ banquets and assemblies open with grace or an invocation and few churches surpass the Christmas and Easter programs of the schools. So "to call public education 'Godless' betrays invincible ignorance, infinite prejudice, and complete misunderstanding of what religion is all about."¹⁰

But the term "secular!" Is that not an admission of the anti-religious attitude of the public schools? The definition of a word in a particular use must be interpreted by the history of its development. Early America was

⁶ Moehlman, Conrad, *op. cit.* pp. 63, 79-80, 84.

⁷ Moehlman, Conrad, *op. cit.* p. X.

⁸ Moehlman, Conrad, *op. cit.* p. 98.

Oxnam, *Nation*, January 15, 1949, pp. 67 ff.

⁹ Moehlman, *op. cit.* p. 98.

¹⁰ Moehlman, *op. cit.* p. 98.

filled with a multiplicity of sects. The fathers knew by history and experience the most bitter, divisive, embroiling influence among peoples has been the conflicts among the sects. They early realized if they were to build a strong united nation it would have to be through an agency in which such conflicts were not present. So, deeply religious though they were, they established a secular constitution for they deeply believed only such an instrument could hold the undivided loyalty of all our people and make us one nation, inseparable.¹¹ When their equally religious sons were confronted with the task of providing an educational institution to preserve that constitution and that nation, they chose the free tax-supported secular public school and for exactly the same reason. Secular constitution and secular public school—a dual expression of the American philosophy of separation of church and state—are inextricably linked. Change one in the basic aspect and the other must be changed also. And it is crystal clear the term secular as applied to either does not imply a denial of religion or any religious faith, but is a definite pronouncement of non-sectarianism in our public law and in our public schools.

It has an even deeper import. It signifies that education for life adjustment will not be restricted to a part of the culture, either as to source of experiences or their application. Rather it will draw upon the whole of it: religion, science, philosophy, art, literature, and so on. Furthermore, its selection of experiences and their presentation will be such as to play down divisions and animosities; assist in seeing clearly the dividing line and proper relations between ideas and ideals that are personal—giving variety, color and zest—and those ideals and loyalties which are universal and must be commonly accepted and held if we are to be one people, a free people upholding our great democratic heritage. The secular is complete, cohesive, uniting, rather than partial, divisive, disintegrating.

As to the charge that Americans are a spiritually sterile people, one needs but contrast the activities of the American leaders and people with that of any of their enemies in the last war. As to the shortcomings here at home there is no evidence that the public schools have produced a disproportionate share of offenders. Quite the contrary.¹² If American culpability is to be leveled against the public schools, then the European state and parochial schools, both with strong sectarian curricular emphasis, must answer for the acts of their products.

DEMAND FOR INCREASED EMPHASIS ON SPIRITUAL TRAINING

And so as the demand rises that the public schools increase their emphasis on spiritual training, some oppose it, raising the charge of unfitness.

¹¹ Beard, *The Republic*, Chap. XII, especially p. 169.

Thayer, V. T. *op. cit.* pp. 17, 18.

¹² Kalmer and Weir, *Crime and Religion*.

It is therefore imperative that the public know, as fully as possible, the underlying motives, fears, and beliefs, true or false, that impel each to action. Public school people have a heavy responsibility in the supplying of that information. They are close to the issue; they are capable of a scholarly presentation, clear cut and comprehensive; they realize that no statement should be made just to raise the emotions nor any pertinent fact omitted merely to escape it. The discourse must be kept upon the high level of democratic discussion. Fear, hatred, anger are not attributes of that method; honesty, courage, intellectual integrity, and willingness to face issues are. Finally, it must be remembered that no single group, as a group, can be singled out as the opposition. The public schools represent all the people. The majority of the children in any group attends them. A militantly loyal staff of teachers, representing all faiths, teach in them. Protagonist and antagonist cannot be divided on the basis of politics, social standing, or religion. They can only be divided on the basis of the question itself.

This paper assumes that past and present trends in American education will continue; that the hands of the clock will not be turned backward; that the free tax-supported secular public school will continue the chosen responsible instrument of our people for educating all American youth for full life adjustment. It further assumes the use of the whole culture to provide and teach the spiritual values necessary to that end.

PROPOSED SPIRITUAL VALUES IN SECONDARY-SCHOOL PROGRAM

This brings us to the heart of the problem, "What spiritual values should be in the secondary-school program?" Before dealing with the question directly, let us briefly assay some present proposals. One, teach religion directly in the classroom. At once the question is raised, "What religion?" If one sticks to Christianity alone, he faces the impossible task of satisfying two hundred fifty-six denominations.¹³ Furthermore, at least half of the population has no religious affiliation. It was the quarrels of the sects that took the Bible from the classroom.¹⁴ There is little hope their divergencies could be reconciled today. The teaching of religion as a special interpretation or a commitment to faith is and must remain the responsibility of the church.¹⁵

Another proposal is government support of church schools. One of the most profound American convictions is that church and state must be

¹³ Bower, William C. *Church and State in Education*. p. 47.

¹⁴ Bower, William C. *Church and State in Education*. p. 47.

Fordick. "Shall American School Children Be Religiously Illiterate." *School and Society*. pp. 403-404.

¹⁵ Bower. *op. cit.* pp. 78-79.

Oxnam, *op. cit.*

separated.¹⁶ The founders of our country, particularly the authors of the constitution and the first amendment, were eminent scholars and students of history. They knew that from ancient Egypt to their own day union of church and state had led invariably to the corruption of both. The French and Russian Revolutions, the situation in Europe and Latin America prove the force of their argument still holds. This concept, an essential part of our culture, long embedded in our law at every level and only recently proclaimed by our highest court with¹⁷ added vigor, has enabled men from all over the world of every faith and no faith to find peace and sanctuary in this new world which in turn has found them assimilable citizens. Destroy this provision and, while a given church may fatten from the confusion, churches as a whole, Christianity, and even religion will suffer. Few proposals could more quickly break down the almost universal tolerance that has typified America, and make us a people of warring sects.

Again, America is committed to equal opportunity for all American youth. A secular system of education embracing all our children and dedicated to that end is within the national financial possibility. Two hundred fifty-six sectarian systems would mean a drastic lowering of standards to some or to all, or a tax load heavier than the people will bear.

Lowering educational standards raises the national risk. When competing nations are moving toward unified systems, it is more important that we retain and strengthen the one we have. It was because we had such a system with up-to-date facilities, well-trained teachers, that we were able to convert a nation of unskilled workers in a matter of months to workers and servicemen able to beat the best the enemy could produce. This could not have been done with a multiple system more concerned with a division of spoils than educational achievement.

The last proposal is released time. For awhile it seemed to be sweeping the country, but now, apparently, it is doomed.¹⁷ It seems to be asking for a surrender of time, badly needed in an overcrowded curriculum for activities which in some of their aspects tend to promote divisions and disunity.¹⁸ The recent Supreme Court decisions and present trends seem to foretell its passing.

Our remedy then must lie within the framework of the public schools. "In a life and death struggle over spiritual values it is necessary to mobilize every resource . . . not least among these resources is the public

¹⁶ Supreme Court decisions—*Everson* and *McCollum* Cases.

¹⁷ Trow, William Clark. "Dr. Fosdick and Religious Illiteracy." *School and Society*, Vol. 67, No. Moehlman, *op. cit.* p. 133
1735, p. 240.

¹⁸ Moehlman, *op. cit.* p. 133

school."¹⁰ But if the schools cannot teach religion and are rejecting release time, what shall be their approach?

RESPONSIBILITY OF A SECULAR INSTITUTION

They must determine clearly what their responsibility as a secular institution is with respect to teaching spiritual values, then accept it as a definite part of their curricular and co-curricular load. They need to find the dividing line between secular obligation and sectarian responsibility. The public school's responsibility should be met on its own campus, within its own curriculum, by its own teachers, on its own time. The church's obligation should be met separately and completely away from school organization.

We need now to give a definition of spiritual values, to define the term "secular" again and perhaps a little more clearly as applied to the public schools, and delineate their responsibility and procedure in the secular teaching of spiritual values.

It is necessary for school folk and the public to get a clear cut understanding of the concept "spiritual values."¹¹ It includes a greater range of values than those embraced by religion alone; it includes those but it also includes the ones produced by the rest of the culture—art, science, philosophy, and literature. Brubacher has given a helpful definition. They are, he says, "the same values which through the years have been discussed frequently under the inclusive heading of the true, the beautiful, the good."¹² "The values which emerge from such a critical study (of right and wrong, truth, beauty, what consists of the good life at its best) constitute what we may call . . . the level of spiritual values in the full and proper sense."¹³

"Among these spiritual values are moral insight; integrity of thought and act; equal regard for human personality wherever found; faith in the free play of intelligence both to guide study and to direct action; and finally those further values of refined thought and feeling requisite to bring life to its finest quality;¹⁴ 'respect for personality, freedom of conscience, thought, and speech . . .'"¹⁵ Others mentioned are loyalty, freedom of co-operation, temperance, courage, love, understanding, friendliness, kindness, reverence, and duty.

SECULAR DEFINED

And now what is meant by the term "secular" as applied to the public schools? It does not mean Godless, it does not mean anti-religious, it is

¹⁰ Brubacher and Others—*The Public Schools and Spiritual Values*, p. 7.

¹¹ *Ibid.*—Chap. II.

¹² *Ibid.*—Chap. II.

¹³ *Ibid.*—p. 2.

¹⁴ *Ibid.*—p. 2.

not a refusal to make life God centered, it is not a denial of spiritual values. It is an acceptance of them, a type of approach to them, a way of presenting them just as truly as sectarianism is a different and contrasting approach.²⁴ The secularist is not bound by the accepted values of a particular institution; to him no truth is superior or inferior to another because of source or sanction; he believes truths form a co-ordinate brotherhood that cannot be subjected to a hierarchy of rank. The loyalty of secularism embraces more than an institution; it includes all institutions. It thinks in terms of the social order, its purpose, its philosophy, its cohesion, the highest good and development of all its people. The secular school derives its spiritual values from the whole culture—religion, science, philosophy, literature, and art. It places no restriction upon any value except its capacity to serve. In the past the public school has shown timidity in the area of religion because of its fear of the sects. Now that the public is grasping more clearly the spheres of responsibility of church and school, this need for hesitancy is passing away and the school moves forward to use the whole culture for its purpose.

And that purpose may be divided into three parts: it desires to tell the story, the significance and value of every segment of the culture and to show their interrelationships.²⁵ It must build a loyalty to the American way of life that stands before and above that to any foreign institution, group, ruler, or potentate. It must develop a citizenry adequate to the perpetuation and fulfillment of the American democracy. Finally our secular schools will use these spiritual values to enable its youth to build moral tone, ethical fibre, and spiritual strength into its pattern of life.

It might be said just a little differently. A graduate from our public schools should be first of all an American—understanding the American way of life and being deeply committed to it; he should see his culture as a cohesive whole, as a unity, and be able to play his part in it adequately; he should have a personal philosophy of life that will enable him to live satisfactorily with himself, peacefully with his neighbors at all levels, and face his universe with confidence, courage, faith, and serenity.

CORE OF VALUES FOR THE GOOD LIFE

But let us move a little closer to the teaching situation. The student asks, "Can you help me find the good life?" The answer is "Yes, in every age, in every land, and in every race, and in every area of human thought the greatest minds and souls of humanity have given this prob-

²⁴ *Ibid.* p. 14.

Moehlman, *op. cit.* pp. 98 ff.

²⁵ Oxnam, "Church, State and School," *Nation*—January 15, 1949, p. 67 ff.

them their greatest attention. They have provided answers upon which countless millions have leaned with confidence. With due respect and humility your school has searched them all and is prepared to give you the benefit of its efforts. You will understand that our offering is not exhaustive, but it supplies a core of values which will enable you to find harmony with your universe, oneness with your world, and an understanding of and loyalty to the liberal-democratic culture of which you are a part. It will also reveal areas of finer shades of thought and niceties of meaning which, if pursued, will carry you to the church of your choice, to classes of philosophy and science, and to the realm of beauty in all its magnificent expression whether of nature or of man. You will find that sectarian trends, as a source of special interpretations, or for finding a particular faith, are invaluable. It is only if and when they seek to set up impassable divisions, make invidious comparisons, draw lines of demarcation, and become intransigent centers which demand that all others bow to their special interpretations that they become a danger and a menace."

As to what this core of values shall be, much spade work has been done. Those suggested by Brubacher were listed above and Moehlman suggests a similar list. Both San Diego and Los Angeles have published courses in this field. That of San Diego is entitled "Spiritual Values," while that of Los Angeles is called "Moral and Spiritual Values in Education." Both, in their definitions and in their core of values, parallel Brubacher and Moehlman quite closely.

San Diego says: "The term 'spiritual values' as used in this handbook refers to those values which contribute to the dignity and worth of human personality."²⁶ It lists, "some learnings which the school seeks to develop in order to achieve values of a spiritual order are: respect for personality, loyalty to ideals of American democratic group life; responsibilities for self-direction; perseverance in pursuit of worthy goals; sensitivity, creative ability, and reverence."²⁷

Los Angeles states: "This publication is not instruction in religion as such; nor is it sectarian in any sense of the word. It is real practical application of the qualities of the spirit to which people of all races, creeds, and religions may and do freely subscribe."²⁸ The key qualities chosen are: ²⁹ appreciation, co-operation, courage, faith, generosity, good will, kindness, loyalty, respect for law, responsibility, and reverence. The "list can be expanded indefinitely," but the hope is, "If we can help the youth

²⁶ San Diego Public Schools Course of Study. *Spiritual Values*—Foreword.

²⁷ *Ibid.* Foreword

²⁸ Los Angeles Public Schools Course of Study—*Moral and Spiritual Values in Education*—Foreword.

²⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 11.

of our community to make these qualities of the spirit a living part of their consciousness, we shall know that they are making a real contribution in moral and spiritual values."²⁰

In selecting the core values one can find guidance here. Perhaps one further guiding principle needs to be stated. The body of spiritual values which a people will accept must be in harmony with their philosophy of life. The two competing irreconcilable philosophies of our time are democracy and authoritarianism. The latter is anathema to the American conscience. Therefore, the public schools will and must select a body of values, consonant with the former. It is apparent the ones listed above will meet the requirements of that principle and are therefore suitable. Once selected they become an integral part of the school objectives. Units of work and school activities containing them, of sufficient scope and sequence to make them an actual vital part of the child's growth, should be deliberately supplied. And the school shall suffer no restrictions in gathering its experiences save those dictated by the principles of good teaching. One exception only. It shall not attempt any religious sanction, seek any commitment of faith, or teach any sectarian interpretation.

NEIGHBORLINESS AN EXAMPLE OF SPIRITUAL VALUES

Let us assume for the moment we are teaching neighborliness—one of the great spiritual values. Our philosophy is that all men can and must be good neighbors at every level: home, community, state, nation, and world; that failure anywhere endangers success everywhere; that it is the responsibility of the individual to give his utmost support to the achievement of this ideal.

Almost any public school campus offers a perfect starting point. Its own children coming from the end of the earth are seen working, co-operating, playing, living, and succeeding together while such things as race, creed, social station, place of origin are relegated to their proper status; interesting, valuable but offering no barriers to team work or co-operation and of special importance only to the individual concerned.

We call upon the social studies and the sciences to prove the equality of all races in their potentialities—spiritual, mental, physical. Such things as superiority, inferiority, favored peoples, as applied to the group are false concepts. History provides ample proof that greed, baseness, perfidy, exploitation, imperialism have led to war and disaster; while honor, integrity, generosity, and humanitarianism have brought about security, peace, and good will.

Art, literature, and philosophy are called upon to yield their copious treasures without stint.

²⁰ *Ibid.* p. 11.

RELIGION CAN MAKE CONTRIBUTION FROM SECULAR APPROACH

And religion, which has hitherto been touched lightly because of a fear of the sects, shall now make its full possible contribution from the secular approach. We shall approach its use much as we do that of art. We would not think of separating art into warring segments or schools, but consider it as a unity from the most primitive to the most advanced. The true artist and teacher glories in it all as different stages in humanity's universal effort to find and to express beauty. He will feel free to use any of it that can give his pupils a needed insight. So shall we use religion. It is an ageless, raceless, timeless, universal human search for reality. The true teacher in the secular school will draw no invidious comparisons but will joy in it all and draw upon it all whenever it can make a contribution to his purpose. He is seeking converts to no particular creed. He points out that a faith, a sect, is a particular term—religion is an inclusive one. He will be concerned that his students know something of the history of this great humanity, its growth, its divisions, and that they realize it has a great contribution to make in helping to build the good life personally and socially.

So, thinking of religion as man's universal and world-wide quest for truth, we draw upon its priceless stores for experiences and insights to help build the desired growths toward neighborliness. As we turn to it we are immediately aware of such concepts as God—the universal Father—all men are His sons—they are a brotherhood—if a brotherhood they should work together in co-operation, at peace as equals—so friendship and neighborliness are undergirded and buttressed by the teachings of religion. Of course the process will not be so condensed as here. Other great religious writings, writers, and thinkers will be called upon freely—exactly as would be done in the field of science or any other if their materials were being used. The story of the good Samaritan would be excellent material—but other writings could be used as well. The Los Angeles course of study quotes from eight different religions in buttressing the teaching of the golden rule.²¹

One might continue with each of the values chosen but, even if time and space permitted, it is unnecessary. And of course it is understood that all units of work, situations, and activities will be definitely planned so as to give the students the richest possible experiences in these values. This means counselors and activity sponsors, as well as teachers, will make the fullest use of them in their work.

²¹ *Ibid.* First page.

FOR A SPIRITUALLY STALWART CITIZENRY

One final thought: democracy is facing a world-wide struggle with authoritarianism. In America the public schools are the bastions of democracy. Their opponents, by definition and as a result of sectarian strife, have sought to produce in the minds of the public an impression which will weaken and make them impotent. The schools, in turn, are determined to make their position so clear, so firmly based on the American philosophy, so true to the desire and will of the people that no one can misunderstand or dare to misrepresent their position.

If the American people can be convinced that the public schools are unable or unconcerned to teach the values and insights necessary to produce a spiritually stalwart citizenry, it will be an easier task to replace them with schools of another kind. Let us not be deceived. This is a crucial battle in the world-wide war between democracy and authoritarianism. Voices are being raised to stampede us into retreat. Much is said of the retreat from reason, from democracy. Some are quoted as saying we must choose Moscow or Rome.³² But even as they speak, stronger and clearer voices are heard above the tumult and the confusion. Dewey and his followers have said that democratic education offers the only hope of enabling man to grow to his full stature; the Scientist Du Nouy says³³ man can not reach his full destiny unless he is free—free to make his own choices and free to take the consequences; Liebman asks us to worship our God like free men³⁴—discard the authoritarian symbols of a God of wrath, a God of vengeance, and the idea of men as worms in the dust—and worship our God as He is—a God of love—our Father—and we His sons and heirs—not crawling in the dust, but walking proudly upright, able to see the stars. We walk hand in hand with Him, capable each by divine will to do the task He sets to our hand.

FREE MEN'S HERITAGE

Education—Science—Religion thus interweave a mighty pattern of life possible only to free men aware of their heritage and equal to their destiny. Democracy is not in retreat. She scorns and repudiates the weaklings and the traitors. Her legions with banners flying are driving full speed ahead, conscious that any other course means stepping back or down and her proudest institution, the free American tax-supported secular public school system, reaching into the full range of her priceless culture shall extract every spiritual value that it may ever reappear enriched and enhanced in each succeeding generation of her sons and daughters.

³² Father Walsh. "Total Power: A Footnote to History." *Saturday Review*—July 17, 1948. Reviewed by Garrett Mattingly.

³³ DuNouy, L. *Human Destiny*.

³⁴ Liebman, Joshua. *Peace of Mind*.

What Spiritual Values Should Be Included in the Secondary-School Program?

CARL W. ALLISON

THE subject under discussion includes the term "spiritual" which may be defined in various ways: (1) Of or pertaining to the higher endowment of the mind, (2) Of or pertaining to the moral feelings or states of the soul, (3) Of, pertaining to, or like the soul or its affections, (4) Of or pertaining to sacred things or the church, (5) Characterized by the highest qualities of the human mind.

Sometimes our thinking on this subject is further muddled by substitution of such terms as "moral," "religious," or "ethical." It has been my observation that in most cases where the school finds any question on the part of the public to the introduction of such values into the curriculum that it is religion that is concerned. Since I believe that you are interested in the controversial issues of the subject, I propose to limit my discussion to "religious" values.

THE CHAMPAIGN PLAN

Most of you know that we in Champaign have experienced a prolonged controversy over a plan of religious education in our schools. In 1940 the Champaign Council of Religious Education, a voluntary association of Jewish, Roman Catholic, and Protestant faiths was formed. They asked for and secured permission from our Board of Education to offer classes in religious education in grades seven, eight, and nine throughout the Champaign school system. Later the plan was expanded to include grades four through nine and provide for furnishing instructors having educational background and experience equal to or above the standard established for academic teachers by our Board of Education. The religious council furnished all books and materials needed in the classes, so there was no expense to our Board for instruction.

When the plan was started, cards were sent to parents of elementary school students by the teachers asking the parents to indicate whether they desired their children to receive religious education in the schools. Cards filled out and returned were given to the teachers of religious education classes. Students who did not wish to enter a class in religious education were allowed to study during the period.

Children in the school were admitted to religious classes upon written request of their parents who designated the classes they were to enter. The Board of Education excused such pupils from participation and attendance in the public school program for one period each week to participate in religious education classes. The Board had these religious education classes

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States on March 8, 1948, will require changes in the programs of many schools in Illinois which are now providing some type of religious education for the children of the school system or which are releasing children from school during school hours to attend classes in religious education. The following conclusions seem to be warranted:

1. A board of education may not permit religious education classes to be taught in the school buildings during the time when school is in session or when the building is being used for school purposes.
2. A school board may not release pupils from their educational pursuits on condition that they attend classes in religious education in lieu of attendance in the public schools.
3. A school board may not help to provide pupils for religious education classes in any manner whatsoever or take any active part through its teachers or superintendents in the supervision of or provision for classes in religious education.
4. The decision does not prohibit the teaching of factual information of the history and tenets of religious bodies in the regular curriculum.
5. The constitutionality of Section 6-43 of the School Code, giving school boards the power to grant the temporary use of school buildings, when not occupied by schools, for religious meetings and Sunday Schools, was not passed upon by the Court. Probably such use of the school buildings is not illegal provided the board furnishes no funds and is required to pay no expense in connection with such use.

Since the decision, the Champaign Council of Religious Education sponsored by most of the community churches has agreed to rent a few schoolrooms to use outside of school hours for religious education classes on the elementary level. Our school has no supervision of or other connection with these church-sponsored classes. At present, they use twenty-one rooms, but the number of students enrolled is decidedly smaller than when the classes were held on released time.

DIVORCE OF PUBLIC EDUCATION FROM ECCLESIASTICAL CONTROL NOT SYNONYMOUS
WITH SEPARATION OF RELIGION FROM EDUCATION

Before the adverse decision, we had decided to offer released time instruction to high-school classes. With the present set-up, I am sure that we would not have sufficient enrollment. However, I agree with the basic principle expressed by the committee on religion and education, of the American Council on Education, that "the divorce of public education from ecclesiastic control, which is an accepted American policy, is not synonymous with the separation of religion from education." We want children in our public schools to have instruction in the social and cultural pattern of the group. They need to learn the ethical and spiritual truths that have proved necessary for our democratic way of life. However, it is not necessary nor desirable for them to study controversial dogma or creeds in school. That should be left to the churches. The committee of the American Council on Education says that, "The Schools have an obligation to give the young an

understanding of the culture and an appreciation of the ideals, values, and institutions which the culture cherishes. No program of general education can be adequate that leaves such a large area of human concern untouched." We feel that religion should be informally studied in our curriculum when the occasion arises to show its relation to other phases of our culture. This "study of religion" as opposed to the "teaching of religion" must carry no hint of indoctrination. Such a plan will avoid the danger of ignoring religion in the school which might give youth a false idea of its unimportance. This objective study in our regular classes aims to give our youth enough help to enable them to understand better the moral problems which they must face as they approach maturity. We hope that such a working knowledge will help them to avoid false religious schemes and to select the proposals of worthy leaders.

Literature lends itself easily to this study. Discussion of the religious problems in selections such as Shakespeare's "Macbeth" offers a good approach. Consideration of the moral disintegration of Macbeth's character indicates that he could have risen to great heights by the moral route. Instead he chose the evil way and found neither satisfaction nor happiness in the end. Students may think of other examples where greed and selfishness caused the downfall of an individual.

Bunyan's "Pilgrim's Progress" offers a splendid opportunity to teach the importance of living in harmony with moral laws rather than living according to the dictates of Satan. The difficulties of Christian in his journey may parallel the difficulties of the class members and a discussion is sure to be quite worth while.

The Bible and the Koran may be studied as part of the world's literature.

Classes in social studies may furnish such leads as: (1) Influence of religion in the history of nations, (2) Religion and international relations, (3) Study of Oriental faiths, (4) Place of religious faith and "peace of mind" in good mental health.

Most of the high-school subjects and many extraclass activities may furnish situations where the subject of religion enters logically into the discussion.

Another big factor in creating spiritual values in the school is good environment and the attitude of the teachers. Certainly beautiful pictures, pleasing statuary, and appropriate decorations help to overcome the dingy values of the slovenly home. A well-trained, contented teacher who has time to take a personal interest in each child and give him a chance to enjoy her dynamic personality is certainly a big factor in spiritual training.

SPIRITUAL TRUTHS WITHOUT SECTARIAN TEACHING

Although formal sectarian training is not given in our classes, we believe that students in our public schools can still learn to know great spiritual truths and acquire a sense of moral values. We hope that the parents will encourage them to attend the churches of their faiths and thus strengthen their chances to enjoy the abundant life.

CONCLUSION

Since direct training in religious education on school property and on released time for school children has been ruled illegal, it seems that a means for "studying religion" rather than "teaching religion" needs to be developed to provide a sound preparation for life. If religion is ignored in the schools, the children may assume that it is of no importance and not worth considering.

It seems psychologically sound to discuss religion in the regular activities of the school as the occasion arises. It may be given consideration just as are other controversial subjects, such as politics or labor policies. Such natural discussion will help our students to understand our cultural heritage and to appreciate the difference between right and wrong. Care must be taken to see that no indoctrination is involved in school discussions. It is desirable that parents will encourage the child to get formal religious training in the church of his faith.

By securing excellent teachers and by furnishing the finest environment possible, we will aid in developing ideals of true democracy in our pupils throughout the entire school system.

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Gabriel R. Mason, Principal, Abraham Lincoln High School, Brooklyn, New York; and Donad L. Simon, Principal, Bloomington High School, Bloomington, Indiana, served as discussants.

Group V—French Room

CHAIRMAN: L. L. Myers, Principal, W. H. Kirk Junior High School, Cleveland, Ohio

What is a Functional Program for the Junior High School?

FORREST E. LONG

IT seems fairly obvious that there is no one pattern for a good junior high school that all of us would accept, unless we confine the description to broad outlines of what good schools should do. On the other hand I believe that each of us has fairly concise ideas of what a good junior high school is. Certain it is that we do not agree on the details.

When I attempt to visualize a functional program, it seems better to think in terms of specific schools I know rather than to think in terms of academic standards. But this idea got me into difficulties because schools that I consider good are far from conforming to any standard. In fact they are very different. They may be organized differently and administered differently and have quite different kinds of guidance programs or curriculums. If you have not gone through the mental gymnastics of attempting to classify a score of junior high schools, you have an interesting evening ahead of you.

ATTEMPT TO IDENTIFY SCHOOLS WITH FUNCTIONAL PROGRAMS

I attempted to classify a number of junior high schools on the basis of the degree that they seem to have a functional program. At the time I did this I realized that my scale had no objectivity and that the soundness of my

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ultimate classification of each school could be questioned. I gave each school a rating of low, average, or high.

After I had gone through this exercise, I was surprised at the result. At the beginning, I had thought that the schools which rated high would be show schools—schools where others could go to “see how it should be done.” Since my ratings admittedly were subjective, I thought that the schools rated high by me would be doing most things just as I would like to see them done. However, these preconceived ideas proved to be wrong. The best schools were not necessarily show schools nor were they necessarily conducting the details of their programs the way I should want them carried out.

Then I took a look at the schools I had rated average and weak. Surprisingly enough they were following the standards stated in the literature. They were meeting formal standards very well. Also, I found that the weak and average schools were strong in certain types of activities. In a word there was almost unbelievable overlapping from one classification to another. If we confine our description of the schools in the various groups or classes—weak, average, or high—to statements of what they “have” or what they “do,” there just isn’t very much difference between them. But I recognized one characteristic that the schools in the top group have that the schools in the lowest group seem to lack. Almost without realizing what I had done, I had rated the schools not on the scale I had previously constructed but rather on this one trait.

I discovered that the faculties of the schools with the top rating have courage to try new ideas, confidence in their ability to judge the worth of new procedures, and faith in themselves. Furthermore, the members of each faculty in a school rated high seem to have faith in one another. The schools with top ratings seem to think they are going on to better things.

It seemed to me that each of the schools I had rated weakest is a school that has almost as much professional competence in the staff as the schools in top rating and it seemed to me that the faculties of these so-called weak schools are about as well informed and, if anything, they know more about what the experts are saying and doing. In fact they seem to place more reliance on what is considered by others as right or correct procedure. But the staffs in the schools in the lowest group are more likely to retreat to the old standards. They are more likely to hide behind excuses that this or that can’t be done “in our town” or “in our school.”

SUBJECTIVE EVALUATION OF FUNCTIONAL PROGRAM

So I have decided to center my attention today on the building of a functional program by means of building confidence and courage on the part of the staff, the community, the pupils, and the board of education. But I probably would have arrived at the same decision without the rating exercise.

Whenever we go out to work with junior high-school faculties we spend most of our time building up their confidence in their own ability to do the job themselves.

Probably our discussion would be more pointed if we were to attempt to outline the scope of a junior high school that we believe would be most nearly completely functional. We might speak of clubs, of student organizations, of the music and art activities. We might comment on the advisement plan, on the curriculum, and on the health program of the school. All of these leads would give us some clue as to how the school is attempting to provide for its pupils. But in the final analysis, it is not so much *what* they have in their program as it is the way a given program is adapted to the local situations.

CHARACTERISTICS OF EFFECTIVE FUNCTIONAL PROGRAMS

There is nothing new or unique in our search for the functional program for the junior high school. There has been an age-long search for a program that would "meet the needs of the pupils." But as far as I know there has never been a *bona fide* school anywhere that wasn't operated with the avowed objective of meeting the needs of its pupils. How well many of these schools actually succeeded, or are succeeding, in their aims is quite another question.

So instead of spending my time on specifics of organization, I'm going to tackle the characteristics of good schools. I shall defend the right of the principal and the teachers and the pupils and the patrons to organize a school that suits them, a school, in a word, that is to them functional, even though the experts may disapprove of many of the details. I am going to defend the proposition that there is no criterion of functionalism of a junior high school better than the opinion of those most closely associated with the school, provided they are professionally informed.

In recent months I have made quite a collection of clippings and notes of statements made by leading educators to the effect that American education, including junior high-school education, is all wrong. Indeed we seem to be living in an age when we must find a culprit whom we can blame for all the ills of the world. We can't blame the home, for we all have homes and it is difficult to demonstrate that one's own home is any better than homes in general and unless one has a superior home of his own, he hesitates to cast stones; we can't be too outspoken against the church because that brands us as bigoted; but there is the school! It almost seems as though there are few to fight back in its defense, so we just bang away.

The pattern seems to be that we condemn in wholesale and then we prescribe remedies. So seldom are the remedies related to experimental evidence; so seldom do the recommendations bear any relationship to what actual situ-

ations have proved! It seems to me that all too many of our people who reach the headlines ignore the slow process of experimentation. It seems to me that what many of our prominent educators are doing is comparable to the doctor who might announce some "sure-fire" cure which he has not taken the trouble to test out. I am sure that such an announcement from a member of the medical profession would hit the headlines, but I am not so sure that the doctor's reputation would survive. However, there is no such restraint felt by the man in education. He can advocate any screwball cure for the ills of the school the more nearly it resembles the fantastic, the more attention it is likely to get.

DEFENSE OF TODAY'S JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

Rather than to follow this pattern of condemnation, I propose to defend much that is being done today in many junior high schools. I just don't believe we know enough about how it should be to be justified in saying that what we are doing is all wrong.

I am willing to defend the proposition that in the light of present knowledge many junior high schools are doing a most satisfactory job. This does not mean that I think they are doing the best possible job, nor does it mean that they will not improve their offering in the days and years to come. In fact, one of the things I would like to defend about good junior high schools is their genuine interest in doing a better job.

I can't be too emphatic in stating that even though I do not want to condemn all that is being done in our junior high schools, so also I do not for a moment believe that junior high-school education can, will, or should stand still. American life does not stand still and no more can American education become static. Junior high schools for the past twenty years have not stood still. Personally, I believe they have made great progress.

May I state my position another way? While I do not believe any of our junior high schools is even approaching one hundred per cent efficiency, I am equally certain that many of our junior high schools are not deliberately being inefficient. This is another way of saying that we have much to learn about the education of teen-age children. The very fact that so many of us are assembled here argues well for the future of American education. We are trying to learn from one another just how we can do a better job of teaching the young people of today.

SPECIFIC ISSUES IN ANALYZING A FUNCTIONAL PROGRAM

In order to present my problems in the most specific terms, I am stating the issues in the form of questions.

Issue Number One. Does anyone know what constitutes a functional program in the junior high school today?

Possibly some genius somewhere, sometime, stumbled on the ultimate in education. Maybe someone has found the answer to the riddle of living in the modern complex world and has translated his understanding into an educational program that bears all the earmarks of perfection. Personally I doubt it. And furthermore, if someone has done this, I doubt that you and I would be astute enough to recognize it even if we saw it.

So if you interpret the issue or question, Does anyone *know* what constitutes a functional program today?, in terms of the *best possible program*, then my answer is "no."

Junior high-school staffs usually are very modest in making claims for their procedures. This very reluctance on their part to speak with finality has cost the junior high school much support. Many ill-informed parents have grown disgusted with us because we can't be more dogmatic. The doctors face this same problem. As you well know, some patients feel this same way about their doctor. They don't want their doctor to say he doesn't *know* what is wrong; they want absolute answers, even though the doctor really doesn't know.

I am not for a moment suggesting that the junior high school renounce its scientific approach to program building in favor of charlatanism—in favor of absolutes. I am merely pointing up one of the difficulties we face. May I illustrate it differently?

There is considerable evidence that special-type schools seem to please their clientele better than our conventional public schools. If this is true, why is it true?

To begin with, the special type school selects its patrons and pupils. Only those who are interested in its program follow through after their first contacts. The skeptical ones tend to drop out. Those remaining "believe" the school has a functional program whether it does or not. Who can be sure that those who know the program best are wrong?

So in answer to issue number one, "Does anyone *know* what constitutes a functional program in the high school?", I answer in the negative. Even though each of us thinks he knows what is functional, it is very likely that future students of the education of adolescents will be amused at our present-day conclusions. In other words, there is little evidence that we have at last stumbled upon ultimate truth.

Issue Number Two. Is it possible to test the extent to which an element of the junior high-school program is functional?

This issue is in logical sequence with issue number one. Even though we cannot be sure about the value of the entire program might we not be able to test objectively the value of a given element of the program?

Again, if we are dealing in absolutes, the answer probably should be: we can't be sure that any specific activity or element of the program is as functional as it might be.

But we cannot close our schools until we have absolute answers. We have to do the best we can. And the best we can do now is to utilize all the objective experimental evidence we can secure, fill in the gaps, and there are many, with a heaping measure of subjective common sense. This subjective common sense is going to be keener, richer, as we know more and more about what other schools are doing.

Possibly more objective ways may be evolved for determining the extent to which any element of a program is functional, but for all practical purposes we are going to leave the decision to those in charge of the program, those participating in the activity, and to all of those associated with it.

The teachers in the weaker junior high schools that I mentioned earlier tend to retreat to the conventional in their programs because they lack faith in their own judgment to make improvements. Before schools can make marked progress, teachers must be led to have more faith in their own professional competence. It is this one weakness that leads to our next issue.

Issue Number Three. Can the experts set us straight?

The answer here is an emphatic "no." The expert cannot implement a program; if he is an outside consultant, he cannot even administer it. The chances are good that the expert cannot lead the community to understand and support the program. In the final analysis all the expert can do is to act as a catalyst in getting all interested groups—board of education, administrators, teachers, pupils, parents, newspapers, community leaders—to act together in formulating and supporting a program. Maybe these local people will not come up with a school that you and I would consider the last word, but who are we to say that these local groups are wrong?

May I state this a bit differently? Suppose such a program planned and executed locally and within the limits set by the state, as the larger community—suppose this program isn't the best possible one in many ways, yet it may, in fact, be the most functional program for that school.

This conception of program building is based on the belief that the people, in the final analysis, will be served. In order that they be well served, it is imperative that we school people keep our communities well informed about trends in education.

Note that I am not saying that such a plan, that is, the plan of co-operative planning and execution, will necessarily produce the details of a

better program than one that might be prescribed by the experts. But I am saying that, in a democratic society, we must rely upon the will of the people. Our job is to see that the people are properly informed and that the stage is set for them to express their hopes and desires.

It is in this spirit that I maintain that many junior high schools have programs that are, for them, functional.

In a good many situations, the expert has moved in as a consultant or as an administrator or supervisor and has pushed through his scheme of reorganization without carrying his community with him. It is amazing to see how rapidly the school slips back into its old pattern after this enthusiastic but bungling reformer leaves the school.

Permanent change comes only as those who must administer and implement the program know exactly what they are doing and why.

I believe that I can illustrate how a very weak school in China may have been a highly functional school.

Recently a young man landed in New York. He was the son of typical American missionaries in China. He was born in China and soon after his birth his parents died. He was raised in a Chinese home, attended a Chinese school. No one had ever thought it was a good school. At the age of twenty-one or thereabout he landed in New York. Anthropologists were amazed at his condition. Naturally he could speak only Chinese, but also he walked like a Chinese, his facial muscles were set to give him the look of a Chinese. Indeed, except for the fact that he was by birth an American, we could almost say he was a Chinese.

Regardless of how inferior the school was that he attended, I presume that we can say that it was highly functional. That school was organized, presumably, to make good Chinese out of those attending. In the case of our young American, this school succeeded beyond all expectations.

When I visited the Nazi schools in pre-war Germany, I was convinced that they had worked out a functional program that was alarmingly efficient. These schools were doing for the Hitler youth just exactly what I thought schools should not do. But this didn't alter the fact that the schools did efficiently what they were organized to do.

The Chinese school, as far as our American was concerned, and the Nazi schools, as far as all are concerned, are examples of schools that were functional in what I would consider undesirable ways. But the ones in charge of those schools knew what they wanted. I believe that a co-operatively planned and organized junior high school in an American community will be just as functional and I believe it will be efficient in producing good Americans. The details of the program may diverge markedly from the norm that you and I would set.

Issue Number Four. What are some of the characteristics of junior high schools that appear to have a functional program?

As I have indicated above, the programs that I rated high were programs that had been planned co-operatively. But I found behind the co-operative planning a staff that possessed peculiar and rather easily recognizable characteristics. Probably I should put it another way—I just wouldn't rate a school high if it didn't have the following:

1. A school staff that is professionally minded. By this I mean that I would expect to find them genuinely interested in what is happening in the professional world. They would be students of their professional problems.
2. In a school with a functional program I should expect to find a great amount of teamwork. Teamwork among parents, teachers, administrators, pupils, board of education. This teamwork would be characterized by understanding, co-operativeness, and general drive.
3. I should expect to find pupils and teachers and administrators happy in their work. This happiness would come from an appreciation of the fact that they are doing an important work and they are doing it well.
4. Closely related to the happiness of all personnel and probably a part of it is the general mental and physical good health of the teachers and pupils.

SUMMARY

I ask you to note that I have not indicated that a functional program requires a specific curriculum or curriculum pattern. I have not insisted upon the inclusion of specific activities. Certainly such a school as I have called for would sponsor many types of activities and the curriculum would be alive and modern. Certainly the pattern of democratic co-operation would almost of a necessity find expression in a student body and faculty deeply appreciative of our best democratic traditions.

If I could sum up my conception of a junior high school that has a functional program, I would say that it is a junior high school where an informed and professionally minded staff, working with pupils, parents, and all other community groups, believe it is "on its way" to an even more functional program.

What is a Functional Program for the Junior High School?

M. E. HERRIOTT

INASMUCH as today's issue, "What Is A Functional Program for the Junior High School?", is subject to either a general or specific interpretation, I choose to be specific. First, I shall brief the generalized, theoretical foundation for the junior-high-school program. Then I shall interpret this

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foundation in terms of the actual program of the school of which I am principal.

Recently, I was asked to state my educational philosophy in a nutshell. My statement was a bit of *préci* writing, for I used only thirty-six words: "The junior high school should meet the social and educational needs of young adolescents and the educational aspirations of responsible adult society. School life should be satisfying and enjoyable, purposeful and exacting, democratic socially and politically."

Everything that I say from here on about a "functional program" can be related to or tested by this statement. I shall not labor the point, but it will be there and can be drawn out for discussion.

NEEDS OF YOUNG ADOLESCENTS

I shall begin with the needs of young adolescents. No doubt the ten "Imperative Needs of Youth" as published in *THE BULLETIN* of our Association for May, 1947, is the best such statement issued to date. But it is too general for the junior high school, too inclusive of the needs of youth of all ages. In consequence, a workshop for junior-high administrators in Los Angeles undertook, during the summer of 1947, the task of rephrasing the statements so as to point them up for young adolescents and thus make them better guides for the administration of our junior high schools. Neither time nor your patience will permit a full presentation of the ten needs and their many supporting, more particularized needs. You will however, want me to give the basic ten. (Anyone who wishes to study them in greater detail should secure a copy of the *Handbook for California Junior High Schools*, which was published in April, 1949, as a bulletin of the California State Department of Education, Sacramento.)

In the process of reformulating the ten needs, the summer workshop set up for their guidance an interesting definition of "need." As they put it, "Need" has many facets of meaning. It may be a 'felt need,' a desire, a wish, something to be attained. It may be a lack. It may be something which those who have arrived know that the oncoming generation must acquire in order to arrive. A need may be emotional or physical or intellectual. It may be individual or social. It may be in terms of participation; it may be in terms of outcomes: skills, knowledges, understandings, attitudes, appreciations, ideals, behavior. It may be oriented to the past, the present, or the future."

TEN IMPERATIVE NEEDS REPHRASED FOR CALIFORNIA JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

Now, to the needs as rephrased for the junior high school, and I quote:

Imperative Need Number 1: All junior-high-school youth need to explore their own aptitudes and to have experiences basic to occupational proficiency.

Imperative Need Number II: All junior-high-school youth need to develop and maintain abundant physical and mental health.

Imperative Need Number III: All junior-high-school youth need to be participating citizens of their school and community, with increasing orientation to adult citizenship.

Imperative Need Number IV: All junior-high-school youth need experiences and understandings, appropriate to their age and development, which are the foundation of successful home and family life.

Imperative Need Number V: All junior-high-school youth need to develop a sense of the values of material things and of the rights of ownership.

Imperative Need Number VI: All junior-high-school youth need to learn about the natural and physical environment and its effects on life, and to have opportunities for using the scientific approach in the solution of problems.

Imperative Need Number VII: All junior-high-school youth need the enriched living which comes from appreciation of and expression in the arts, and from experiencing the beauty and wonder of the world around them.

Imperative Need Number VIII: All junior-high-school youth need to have a variety of socially acceptable and personally satisfying leisure-time experiences which contribute either to their personal growth or to their development in wholesome group relationships, or both.

Imperative Need Number IX: All junior-high-school youth need experiences in group living which contribute to personality and character development; they need to develop respect for other persons and their rights, and to grow in ethical insights.

Imperative Need Number X: All junior-high-school youth need to grow in their ability to observe, listen, read, think, speak, and write with purpose and appreciation.

ADULT ASPIRATIONS FOR YOUTH

No matter how fundamental the needs of youth may be to any sound educational program, they are not enough. Adult, responsible adult society must also have its say in terms of its educational aspirations for its youth. Ever since school became an almost full-time occupation for youth, rather than merely a place for learning the Three R's, it has been generally accepted by those who have thought seriously about the schools that the purpose of education is for complete living.

Although of long standing, this point of view has never provided any very usable or effective guides for the curriculum maker and school administrator. Probably the best formulated statement from this viewpoint is the list of seven main objectives of secondary education which was published in the 1918 *Report on Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education* (U.S. Bureau of Education Bulletin, 1918, No. 35). This list is well known to all: Health, Command of fundamental processes, Worthy home membership, Vocation, Citizenship, Worthy use of leisure, and Ethical character. Truly a hodgepodge, if you try to analyze this list, yet a guiding star. But do not be fooled. No one ever successfully developed a curriculum or organized a school by working from this formulation alone. It was never intended that one should.

THE EDUCATOR'S APPROACH TO FUNCTIONALISM

Another approach from a primarily adult viewpoint is that of defining functions, especially the functions of the junior high school. We might almost say that the junior high schools got their start that way. Gruhn and Douglass, in their recent book, *The Modern Junior High School* (Ronald Press, 1947), have done an excellent job of tracing the course of various functions and of evaluating and summarizing their current status. The following are briefed descriptions of the six present-day functions as recognized by these authors.

Function I. Integration

1. To co-ordinate and integrate into effective and wholesome behavior the skills, attitudes, interests, ideals, and understandings presently or previously acquired.
2. To provide for all students a broad, general, and common education in the basic knowledges and skills.

Function II. Exploration

1. To lead students to discover and explore their specialized interests, aptitudes, and abilities as a basis for decisions regarding educational and vocational opportunities.
2. To stimulate and develop a continually widening range of cultural, social, civic, avocational, and recreational interests.

Function III. Guidance

1. To assist students to make intelligent decisions regarding present educational and vocational opportunities and to prepare them to make future educational and vocational decisions.
2. To assist students to make satisfactory mental, emotional, and social adjustments.
3. To stimulate and prepare students to participate as effectively as possible in learning activities so that they may reach their maximum (or optimum) development.

Function IV. Differentiation

1. To provide differentiated educational facilities and opportunities suited to the varying backgrounds, interests, aptitudes, abilities, personalities, and needs of students in order that each may realize the ultimate aims of education.

Function V. Socialization

1. To provide increasingly for effective and satisfying participation in the present complex social order, and to adjust and contribute to future developments and changes in that social order.

Function VI. Articulation

1. To provide a gradual transition from pre-adolescent education to education suited to the needs and interests of adolescents.

Obviously these functions are stated in adult terms modified by the concerns of youth. So we are getting somewhere. The effect of the point of view of John Dewey (*The Child and the Curriculum*, 1900) and of J. L. Meriam (*Child Life and the Curriculum*, 1920) may not be evident to many, but it is surely there. In essence, their viewpoint is that the best preparation for being a good fourteen-year-old is to be the best possible thirteen-year-old. That is, the best preparation for adulthood is to live a full, natural, happy, purposeful childhood. Which is not to say that childhood is not oriented toward adulthood, for what is more characteristic of childhood than the aping of adults? Girls dress up in their mothers' hats, dresses, and high-heeled shoes; boys try out smoking and are eager to shave; both say, "When I grow up I'll do this or that or be this or that." The games of children in every land are patterned after the occupations and leisure activities of the adults who surround them.

So we come rather sketchily to the guiding point of view for a functional program for the junior high school; namely, that it must be established upon the needs of young adolescents and their orientation toward later adolescence and adult life. The junior high school is a "middle" school which must look both ways. Its educational foundations are in the elementary school; its educational future, in the senior high school and beyond.

FROM THE VIEWPOINT OF THE STUDENT POPULATION

For a moment, we pause to consider its student population. Thus far we have spoken of young adolescents or the period of early adolescence. We are thinking primarily of three-year junior high schools with youngsters twelve to fifteen years of age—none younger than eleven and none over sixteen. It is our belief that the elementary schools should earnestly consider the social and psychological development of their pupils and see to it that they reach the junior high school before they are too fully developed but not before they are at least closely approaching the stage of early adolescence. By the same token, the junior high schools should see to it that these students who have sufficiently developed are moved on to the senior high school.

As an aside, we should say that only the three-year junior high is considered in this paper for two reasons: first, it is the most common type; second, it is the type with which we have the most experience. Our considered opinion is, however, that the four-year junior high is a more promising type of organization, that eventually it will become the estab-

lished middle segment of our American plan of public education. But that is another story. (Again we suggest that you secure a copy of the *Handbook for California Junior High Schools* previously mentioned.)

Please notice that our emphasis is upon the physiological and social development, rather than upon the completion of a specified school grade. This emphasis by no means ignores educational achievement or intellectual capacity. These factors come into sharp focus once the students are enrolled. The plan of school organization, the character of the curriculum, the assignment of teachers, the selection of textbooks, and the innumerable other minutiae are virtually affected by the range of capacity and accomplishment. In some schools, the variation is much greater than in others; but in all schools, the range is great enough to be of importance.

DEVELOPING A SPECIFIC FUNCTIONAL PROGRAM

Instead of proceeding farther with generalities, principles, and guide posts, let us now be specific. Inasmuch as I am engaged with my faculty in the process of developing a functional program for Lafayette Junior High School, I shall draw my illustrations from that school. By no means have we arrived, but so much better for the purposes of this paper, which has given us some stimulus to evaluate our school. We shall indicate what has been accomplished, the direction of change, and some of the observable shortcomings.

Lafayette is one of the more than thirty junior high schools in the Los Angeles City School System. The general patterns of the curriculum and of school organization have been established for these schools and are adhered to with reasonable uniformity. But within and beyond these patterns, each school has much freedom to make local adaptations and improvisations which are deemed helpful in meeting community circumstances.

Each school is staffed with the ratio of one teacher for every 28.5 students. Additional teachers are assigned by rule to those schools which offer heavy homemaking and industrial arts programs, to those which engage in federally supported programs, and to those with large numbers of slow learners or non-English speaking students. Over and above this teaching faculty, each school is staffed with a principal, a vice principal (two V.P.s if the enrollment exceeds 1200), a counselor, a registrar, and a librarian.

Each school has a small clerical staff (usually a secretary and two or three clerks), a student body financial manager, a custodial (janitorial) and gardening staff, and a cafeteria manager and staff to operate the school cafeteria. In addition, most schools have afterschool playground

directors. Some also have a larger staff because they operate a youth-center type of after-school program.

The school day is usually divided into six fifty-minute periods, preceded by or interrupted by a short homeroom period, a fifteen-minute "nutrition" period, and a noon period. School usually begins between 8:00 and 8:30 a.m. and closes between 3:00 and 3:30 p.m. Students are in classes six periods each day. Teachers teach five periods and have one non-teaching period. Subjects are almost invariably offered for five periods per week.

In terms of subjects, the curriculum includes the following for all grades all semesters: physical education, English, and social studies. The latter two are often combined as an integrated double-period subject. Mathematics is required four of the six semesters: B7, A7, A8, A9. (The B semesters are the beginning or low and the A semesters the advanced or high semesters of each grade.) General science is required in the B8 and B9 semesters. Music is usually required in the B7 and art in the A7 semester. During the first three semesters, homemaking (usually labeled clothing and foods) is required for girls, and industrial arts (mechanical drawing, wood shop, metal shop, print shop, agriculture, reed shop, handicrafts, and occasionally other subjects) for boys.

There you have the pattern of required subjects. It has scarcely changed, except for one or two compromises, during the past twenty-five years. The need for serious re-consideration of the pattern in the light of present-day professional knowledge and the position of the junior high schools in our system is generally recognized by the principals and our central administration. Some changes, probably nothing radical, will be worked out in the near future.

Beyond the pattern of required subjects, the offerings are highly varied and often represent marked differences in the conception of the needs for different communities. Some emphasize music; others, the industrial arts; still others, academic, college-preparatory subjects, especially in the ninth grade. In fact, the freedom to adapt and to experiment which the schools are permitted is one of the greatest strengths of the Los Angeles City Schools.

With this general pattern as background, let us see how we at Lafayette have worked within the general pattern to develop a junior high school that is directed toward making truly functional the philosophy of adolescent needs, adult aspirations, and a satisfying, democratic school life.

FUNCTIONAL PROGRAM NEVER DEVELOPED BY UKASE

The first, most subtle and most difficult step was to initiate an attitude and a point of view compatible with our philosophy. Notice that I use the word "initiate," not "establish" or "announce" or "promulgate." The basic, guiding point of view of a school is never finished, and it is never the product of any one person's thinking. It never becomes a functioning part of a school by ukase. Once an identifiable point of view is accepted by faculty and students as a guide, it becomes their property to be done with as they will. If it has the vitality of an ideal, it grows as realization is achieved and understanding increases.

DEVELOP CONSTRUCTIVE ATTITUDES

One of the first steps was to prepare a guiding statement of the varying responsibilities of the students, teachers, counselors, vice principals, principal, and others. (For an account of this statement, see an article titled "Lafayette Junior High School Struggles Toward Democracy" in *The Clearing House* for May 1948). This statement, first of all, set up the point of view that everyone in the school has a clearly defined responsibility for managing the school and making it function smoothly and purposefully.

The second step was to bring into the curriculum a number of activities through which faculty and students could effectively participate in the direction and functioning of the school. Among these activities were the following: homerooms for all, a student council with representation from all homerooms, a student court, a class for Safeties (those who direct school traffic and generally control the movement of students about the school), and a cafeteria service group. Placing these activities in the curriculum gave them added importance. Students and faculty also gained ample time thereby to carry forward their deliberations, to develop plans, and otherwise to be truly functional.

A third step was to give positive encouragement to the faculty to assume more responsibility for the school through their own organizations. Some genuine progress has been made, but confidentially, this phase of the program has been a bit disappointing. Teachers are unfortunately inept when it comes to taking such responsibilities. (I say this advisedly from experience as a member of many different faculties.) In the first place, teachers are not prepared by training institutions for such activities. In the second place, administrators usually do the thinking for their schools, and teachers seem all too ready to let them, or their feeling of responsibility for a school as a whole atrophies through disuse.

A fourth step was to initiate a program of school improvement. A decade of school life disrupted by the war and made insecure by frequent

changes in the administration and faculty of the school, and a highly transient student population and community, had led to a greatly deteriorated school plant and correlative unconcern on the part of students and faculty. A strong drive was made to replace outworn or lost equipment, to repair buildings, and to clean walls. In time, this drive led to a program of making much needed improvements which encouraged the students and faculty to take more interest and pride in their school. They began to initiate plans and to push them through for cleaner grounds, less marking on walls, better care of property, and even some projects for outright school beautification. For example, a service shop for making minor repairs, laying walks, building ping pong tables, and the like was proposed by one teacher. When this shop was offered to the ninth graders, the best boys in school, as well as others, rushed to get their names on the waiting list.

Another step toward development of constructive attitudes was to reestablish the school annual and the school paper, not as extracurricular projects but as parts of the regular curriculum. Due to faculty changes and a few other factors, the school paper has not yet become a regular and successful project. But the annual has won a national award, and more copies are sold each semester than the enrollment of the school. It is sold at a price (25c) which all students can afford. The deficit is absorbed by the student body. The great contribution which the annual (*The Blue and Gold*) makes to school morale is well worth the cost.

Still another step toward making school life satisfying and enjoyable was organization of weekly assemblies produced primarily by and for the students. Everyone understands that high standards of performance and audience conduct go hand in hand. Performers must give a top performance if they expect good audience response. Conversely, an audience must contribute by its interest, attention, and applause to the success of a program. The auditorium thus becomes an outlet and an opportunity for drama and music groups, for the student council in conducting elections and the induction of officers, for English-social studies classes to celebrate great occasions such as Thanksgiving. By the same token, all assemblies become events, occasions which are usually both educational and entertaining. They unify the school.

ESTABLISH DEMOCRATIC SCHOOL LIFE

Next to, and, of course, concomitant with, the step of initiating a school attitude and point of view was the move toward establishing a socially and politically democratic school life. Much of that has been touched upon by inference in the preceding discussion. The fact that the student council, student court, and the safety organization were all made part of the regular school day is significant. The establishment of home

rooms and home-room representation on the student council gave the school a representative pattern of government.

In order that justice might be more even handed, the student court took the lead in codifying the school regulations. The new code was duly processed through the student council, the safety organization, and the school administration before being issued for the whole school to study and understand.

The student council is at present engaged in the more complicated task of rewriting the school constitution, which has not been changed for some eight or ten years, even though practices have changed. The new constitution will in time be processed through all homerooms and the school administration before final adoption.

The democratic political pattern has been clearly established. Likewise, the democratic social pattern is operative. The two are intimately connected and largely dependent one on the other. But the setting of a truly democratic pattern is considerably more subtle than the political pattern. If we were to undertake a fuller discussion of these social processes, no time would be left for discussion of curricular changes. So we shall pass over this point.

THE CHARACTER OF THE SCHOOL POPULATION

Two major sets of factors control the modifications and emphases built into our curriculum. The first is the imperative needs of junior-high-school youth. The second is the character of our own student population. We have already presented briefly the imperative needs. With even greater brevity, we can summarize the nature of the student body. It is a heterogeneous, intercultural group consisting of about 50 per cent Negroes, 35 per cent Mexicans, 15 per cent Orientals (both Chinese and Nisei), with a sprinkling of others. There is great transiency, the last official figure showing a turnover of 132 per cent; that is, for every 100 of net enrollment, 232 students were enrolled during the school year. The current enrollment is a few more than 1200. Of these, more than 350 are of 75 I.Q. or below as measured by the highly verbal Otis test. The average I.Q. for the rest of the school by the same standards is 95.

Residentially, the school district is an archipelago of residential islands in a sea of industrial and commercial activities. It is a substandard, greatly underprivileged area, a highly undesirable district in which to rear children, definitely a "less chance" neighborhood.

So much for the peculiarities of the school situation. It is a truism, however, that the peculiarities of any school situation must be equated with the basic philosophy of the junior high school, with the characteristics and needs of young adolescents in general, and with the avowed aspirations

of adult society. If not so equated, the school can scarcely achieve a truly functional program.

NOW TO THE CURRICULUM

First of all, provision is made for grouping students according to ability. All of a measured I.Q. of 75 or below are placed in a so-called Opportunity Department for their academic work. It is called the Opportunity Department because the students are placed there, insofar as they are informed, because of their being so much over age that they should be given opportunity to earn double promotion in order to be graduated from junior high school before being sent on to senior high school. Even within this special department, some grouping on the basis of ability is made, such as special classes for those who are extremely limited in reading ability.

The students of this department participate freely with the regular students in all student body activities (elections, student council, assemblies, and so on) and in classes outside the department such as art, music, physical education, homemaking, and industrial arts.

From this point on, most of our observations in this paper will pertain chiefly to the program for the regular part of the school, although they also apply almost equally to the Opportunity Department. Possibly as good a procedure as any is to indicate adjustments which relate to the various imperative needs.

Partially as a recognition of Imperative Need Number I, exploration of aptitudes and basic occupational experiences, and partially because of our belief that this is the age for full and purposeful experiences with materials, all students are required to take at least one course each semester in homemaking (for girls) or industrial arts (boys). During the first semesters, girls must take courses in clothing and in foods. Later, they have opportunities to take a practical course in a specially built and complete apartment known as Lafayette House. Also, the best seamstresses are privileged to take a course in costume which has as its primary purpose the designing, sewing, and maintenance of costumes for all school performances. The need for a more varied homemaking program is obvious.

For boys, the program is much more satisfactory, although also in need of further change. For example, only this semester we have introduced a handicrafts course to replace a course in mechanical drawing which we found to be entirely too abstract or "academic" for our school—and probably for most junior high schools. The present industrial arts courses include wood shop, reed shop, metal shop, printing, handicrafts, service shop, stage craft, projectionists, sound crew, and photography.

Of course, this ambitious program in homemaking and industrial arts also contributes definitely to others of the Imperative Needs, especially Number IV, home and family life, for girls, and Number V, the value of material things for both boys and girls. Likewise, other subjects often make identifiable contributions to the exploration of aptitudes and basic occupational experiences. For instance, our courses in ceramics often direct students into that field, and music students often get the start here for their later professional careers.

Imperative Need Number II, abundant mental and physical health, is emphasized in the curriculum chiefly through modifications of courses already mentioned, such as physical education and science. But school-wide contributions to this need are highlighted by our augmented counseling program and a health office with a health co-ordinator who gives three-fifths time to this work. Assisting her are two doctors and a nurse. Each physician, a man and a woman, spends three days a month at the school. The nurse is present four days a week.

Imperative Need Number III, citizenship, has already been discussed sufficiently.

Imperative Need Number IV, foundation for home and family life, is the subject of many serious conferences. Little has been accomplished beyond some new emphases in homemaking, physical education, and science. We still feel decidedly inadequate, but have not yet dared to rush in where angels fear to tread.

Imperative Need Number V, sense of values and rights of ownership, has not found any particular expression in the curriculum except as it fits into the expanded citizenship program and the routines of most subjects.

Imperative Need Number VI, knowledge of the natural and physical environment and the scientific approach to problems, is probably the most neglected of all. Thus far, we have not found a way to make a real contribution except through an expanded program of field trips and the initiation of a camping program in the mountain camp owned by the school district. This camping program is being operated experimentally this year with the hope that experience will indicate the most feasible plan for regular and continued operation of a camping activity that will give every student this experience at least once during his three years in junior high school.

Imperative Need Number VII, appreciation of the beauty and wonder of the world and appreciation of and expression in the arts, is another need for which we are earnestly striving to find adequate answers. Some excellent teachers and numerous courses in art, artcraft, ceramics, and vocal and instru-

mental music make real contributions. Also, auditorium programs and the drive for beautification of the school play a part. But these are not yet enough.

Imperative Need Number VIII, socially acceptable and personally satisfying leisure-time experiences, is met in a number of ways. The nutrition and noon periods offer opportunities to engage in chit-chat and other informal activities. Athletic league games organized on a homeroom basis are widely participated in by both boys and girls during the latter part of the noon hour. Social dancing has become a regular part of the physical education instruction for A9s, and the teachers of physical education are studying and experimenting with other possibilities throughout all six semesters. Some courses of a primarily leisure-time nature have been added to the curriculum. Among these are folk dancing and tap dancing; and of course many other courses, especially those in art and music; and free reading periods in the school library make definite contributions toward satisfaction of this need.

But most of all, an expanded program of after-school activities makes the greatest contribution. Through community co-operation, a program of clubs of many sorts, playground activities, a teen-age canteen, and even a toy loan center for pre-school kiddies and a community sing for the whole family have been organized. The total program is organized under the name of Lafayette Center, which is operated by ten private and six public agencies. More than 15,000 participants have been recorded some months. (For an account of this project, see an article titled "Recreation Co-op" in *The Clearing House* for December, 1948.)

Imperative Need Number IX, personality and character development, respect for persons and their rights, and ethical insights, is contributed to primarily through the general citizenship program of the school and the program of student participation in assemblies. Every school subject, every class, every teacher should be making much greater contributions than we feel are being made at present. In fact, the opposite is all too often evidenced by teacher-pupil conflicts and lack of teacher-pupil partnership in the learning process. We have far to go in providing for this need in our subject-organized school.

Imperative Need Number X, the Three R's expanded, is emphasized in the academic core of the school as prescribed for all junior high schools in the city. Our own primary contribution has been organization of the school so as to make it possible to group students on the basis of achievement and capacity in English-social studies, mathematics, and science. Scores on standardized reading and math tests are used for this purpose, coupled with the judgment of teachers and counselors. In addition, special remedial classes have been organized, especially in reading. We even have

one teacher who is experimenting with use of the Tachistoscope and materials using only Basic English.

What the future holds for our program, we do not know. We believe that it is functional. We know that it is not static. And we think that it has within it the seeds of growth which will enable it to become increasingly functional as we progress.

W. Fletcher Simpson, Principal, Shaker Heights Junior High School, Cleveland, Ohio; and *L. M. Simms*, Principal, Enochs Junior High School, Jackson Mississippi, served as discussants.

Group VI—Parlor J

CHAIRMAN: *B. R. Miller*, Principal, Marshalltown Senior High School and Junior College, Marshalltown, Iowa

What Are the Current Trends in Junior College Education?

WILLIAM RANSOM WOOD

HOW fares the new community college idea? From a recent survey directed to the Superintendents of Public Instruction or comparable dignitaries of each of the forty-eight states, it is learned that there are now in existence just two institutions bearing the name "Community College." Both are in Illinois, the home of the first public junior college in America, Joliet Township Junior College, founded in 1902 and still doing a flourishing business. The two new community colleges are at Evanston and Moline, both established in 1946 as the thirteenth and fourteenth years of the local township high schools. For the first year Moline operated as an extension of the State University of Illinois. From the beginning, however, Evanston has functioned independently. In addition to these two, Illinois has nearly a dozen other public-supported junior colleges, each a part of the local school system and each tending gradually toward the community-centered concept, although originally the majority of courses offered were either straight college preparatory or non-credit vocational courses. According to latest and unofficial reports the University of Illinois high-school extension centers at Danville, at Elgin, and at Springfield will be in operation as independent community colleges next September. There may be two or three other similar developments in Illinois within the next few months. Certainly the time to complete plans for a state-wide system of community colleges in Illinois is NOW!

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SURVEY OF STATE LEGISLATION REGARDING THE JUNIOR COLLEGE

Other states having a somewhat similar junior college setup are Arizona, Idaho, Iowa, Kansas, Maryland, Massachusetts, Minnesota, Missouri, and Nebraska. In each of these states there is enabling legislation permitting local high-school districts to establish a two-year extension of their secondary-school programs. In some states legislative proposals to establish a state-wide system of community colleges or community-centered junior colleges partially supported by state funds are under consideration.

Six states—California, Colorado, Florida, Mississippi, Texas, and Washington—already have rather extensive state-wide systems of public junior colleges, most of which are gradually evolving community-centered instructional programs. Four states have no public junior colleges as such, but offer comparable two-year programs of general education at the state universities and teachers colleges. These states are Connecticut, Georgia, Montana, and Virginia. The latter maintains a number of "Regional Vocational Schools" or technical institutes connected with the public schools.

Massachusetts and New York have recently passed legislation authorizing state-wide systems for the community college. However, no such schools have yet been established, but several probably will be opened next year. North Carolina reports two junior colleges that are supported by city funds rather than public-school funds. Illinois, Michigan, Oklahoma, and Utah have legislation pending favorable to the establishment of a state-wide system of community colleges that will be partially supported by state funds. North Dakota has some junior colleges in operation but no legislation or plans under way for the extension of a community college program.

Twenty-one states, according to their State Superintendents of Public Instruction, have no public-supported junior colleges of any kind. These states include Alabama, Delaware, Indiana, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maine, Nevada, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New Mexico, Ohio, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, South Carolina, South Dakota, Tennessee, Vermont, West Virginia, Wisconsin, and Wyoming. Pennsylvania reports that a study recommending a state-wide system has been completed but that no action has yet been taken by the legislature. Wisconsin and Wyoming operate a number of university extension centers in co-operation with local school districts throughout the state. No report from Arkansas had been received at the time this report was prepared.

SIGNIFICANCE OF COMMUNITY COLLEGE CONCEPT

It is interesting and perhaps of some significance that California, Kansas, and Washington are urging the elimination of both the word "junior" and the word "community" from their two-year extension of public secondary

education and recommending the use of a regional or city name. It is believed that the word "junior" will rapidly drop out of use by public schools and will come to designate only private institutions whose function is primarily college preparatory in nature. Perhaps to educators the name of an institution is of little significance, but to prospective students and to taxpayers it can be, and frequently is, a factor of major importance. Whatever the title finally used to designate the two-year program of general education, it should be one that to the lay mind readily distinguishes it from the traditional four-year college and from the so-called skilled trades institutions.

Included in the new community college concept are four principal divisions: First, a program of instruction in the traditional liberal arts courses for transfer students who are fitted for and who seriously contemplate four or more years of higher education; second, a program of specialized training for persons seeking proficiency in skilled trades and occupations; third, a program of instruction in general education designed specifically for the non-specialized needs of the middle fifty per cent of high-school graduates; and fourth, an extensive program of special interest courses in adult education.

It is our belief that the first two divisions combined will ultimately tend to attract a relatively smaller percentage of the total day-school enrollment than the third group. It is with the middle fifty per cent of high-school graduates, then, that the greatest work must be done. *These are the educationally neglected sons and daughters of the American public-school system.* These are the young people who have not gone to college because college held nothing for them. Yet these are the same young people who become the productive strength of their communities. They are the common denominator of society, and we have tended to ignore them.

JUNIOR COLLEGE IN UNIQUE POSITION TO SERVE MIDDLE GROUP

Everywhere it becomes more apparent day by day that the stability of our nation and of the world state rests directly upon what we can do to develop within this middle group the greatest possible number of well informed, highly productive, personally and socially adjusted citizens. The old ways of attempting to teach them will not do the job. New methods, new techniques, new approaches, and new materials must be devised. By this time it has been well demonstrated that any watering down of old-line academic college courses is a waste of time, just as it has been shown repeatedly that it is completely ridiculous to think of training vast numbers of young people in some specific skilled trade or occupation.

Somehow in our thinking we have failed to recognize that the middle fifty per cent of high-school graduates, and probably a large share of the upper twenty-five per cent as well, are not in any sense potential professional

timber. We have failed to comprehend likewise that they are not material for those occupations requiring a high degree of manipulatory skill or specialized talent. On the contrary, they are future recreational leaders, hotel and restaurant managers, life insurance salesmen, real estate salesmen, photographers, aviators, department managers, buyers, owners of small businesses of every description, semitechnical, and semi-professional workers. They are also our future holders of public offices. Working out a satisfactory program of higher education for them is big business—the biggest in the land. Certainly it is that phase of American education that in the years immediately ahead should and must receive the greatest possible emphasis.

BASIS FOR BUILDING SOUND INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAM

Before it is possible to provide a sound program of instruction for the middle fifty per cent of high-school graduates, it is certainly necessary to know as much as can be ascertained about these young men and young women. Curiously enough they constitute the normal group that has seldom been the subject of inquiry. The extremes have been spotlighted. Since the middle fifty per cent cause no particular difficulties, and since they do not intrude themselves as either good examples or bad examples, no one has paid very much attention to them. Consequently over the years they have developed an enormous set of psychological complexes, both social and personal, that must be overcome if any new instruction is to be effective.

Mention of just a few of the tangled skeins may serve to indicate the pattern. The middle-of-the-way high-school graduate expects the maximum possible return immediately for his minimum expenditure of time and effort. He is full of promises, sincerely given, yet he fools himself oftener than he does anyone else. He is a wishful thinker without knowing it. He is a spectator, not a participator. He has never been in the thick of anything. For him it has always been the fringe or marginal contact. This is true of committee work, publications, clubs, dramatic and musical activities, as well as of sports. Long ago in the early elementary-school years he learned that competition with the top level of his group was a hopeless proposition. Therefore he stopped competing, often even with himself. Too frequently he developed a negative attitude toward competition indicated by the fact that he is wary of attempts to get him to participate in anything. Although he is usually somewhat critical of performers, not being one himself, he seldom volunteers. Many types of performances he ignores if possible. Since he can't be a part of them, they are not for him, and he will have nothing to do with them. Educationally this attitude is definitely not good. It is a direct result, however, of our failure to provide suitable educational experiences for the neglected middle group.

Our subject takes satisfaction in avoiding routines and yet he is a creature of habits. Even though he really does not dislike an activity or classroom task, he tends to avoid it if he can, especially if he senses that there is any compulsion involved. Compulsion irks him deeply, yet often he will do little unless some compulsion is invoked. Unless someone insists upon a high standard of performance from him, he is apt to produce at a level below his actual capacity. Unfortunately he has no very definite plans about anything. His day is not organized, nor his time budgeted. Things just happen to him. His future is pretty much an accident. He tries one thing after another until chance and age settle him in a groove some place. His goals are numerous. He wanders from one to another. All of them are usually hopelessly beyond his reach. Not one has been thought through in the light of his ability or of the opportunities available. Money is of very importance to him. He wants things, the latest and the fanciest gadgets, and he wants them *now*. He is somewhat disinterested in other people. Usually, unless influenced by someone, he has no strong urge to do anything for anyone else. Why should he? No one has ever taken much interest in him. He is not very responsible, not punctual, unless carefully checked, which he dislikes.

Essentially, in spite of what we have said here, he tends toward stability. He is a decent, well-meaning, law-abiding person. He is not a trouble maker. When given a task within the range of his interest and ability, he is apt to produce far beyond expectations. Perhaps here lies the answer which we are seeking. Somehow we must discover in each of these young people the pattern of genuine interest and the range of real ability. Then in the light of our findings we must evolve a program of instruction tailor-made for him.

INDIVIDUALIZE PATTERN OF GROUP INSTRUCTION

The hitch in our planning comes in the fact that we must of necessity follow a pattern of group instruction. This, however, can be and must be individualized to the fullest possible extent. It can best be done, perhaps, by abandoning the old idea of classroom instruction, plus a heterogeneous mixture of activities for the gifted few, in favor of a new program of total educational experience for community college students in which remunerative employment, social service, classroom studies, special-interest and leisure-time activities are knitted into one useful and satisfying fabric.

Unless we come up with something that is really worth-while to these young men and young women, it will not be easy to convince them that they should continue in school beyond the twelfth grade, especially since the educational experiences which they have had in the elementary and secondary schools have not been too stimulating or meaningful to them. We shall need to be very clear and forthright in our answers to the student's query: Just what is there in this for me? At present there is a steadily increasing interest among larger and larger numbers of high-school students to go to college. If

they make a stab at the college pie, however, and fail to come up with anything satisfying to their taste, the word will not be long in making the rounds that college education is, for their group at least, just wasted time. We have a selling job to do and the product we offer has to be good.

BEGIN WITH STRONG GUIDANCE PROGRAM

It seems essential that we should begin with the strongest possible program of personal guidance prior to enrollment in the community college. It is possible to study carefully the accumulated academic and personnel records of each student who has come up through the elementary school and the high school. It is possible to discover, through testing and personal interview, the individual applicant's real interests, his abilities, and his shortcomings. It is possible to utilize all such information to help the applicant decide for himself the best possible outlets for his energies. Only after this preliminary work has been done should any applicant be enrolled in any course at the college level. But the matter should not rest there. During the first year in the community college every student should have the benefit of a guidance course that will acquaint him with the philosophy of the school, with improved techniques in how to locate and how to interpret information, how to use time wisely, how to meet and to get along with other people.

The tests and the interviews should continue throughout the year. They should not be used to deny a person admittance to the community college nor to help get him out, if he does not do well academically after he has been admitted. The tests and the interviews rather open the door on the dark chamber of self knowledge. To know thyself, at least in some small measure, is the first step in the development of an enlightened citizen.

UTILIZE COMMUNITY RESOURCES

The second step for community college students, I believe, is to utilize all available community resources in helping them get remunerative employment while they are still going to school. A work-study plan that will enable a student to be regularly employed for a block of time each day and yet permit him to attend classes on a regular schedule is a vital part of the total educational experience of young men and young women of the community college group. At one institution a plan has been evolved that makes it possible for a student to work up to a maximum of thirty hours per week while carrying twelve or thirteen semester hours in the classroom. A little simple arithmetic will show that under such a plan a student by attending four semesters and two eight-weeks' summer sessions can complete two full years of college in two calendar years. At prevailing hourly wages almost all students employed on a thirty hour per week basis can earn enough to pay their way through the first two years of college in their own community without adding anything, or at least very little, to the local taxpayer's load.

Experience has demonstrated that students who are employed do better work in the classroom than those who are not. Likewise it has been shown that young people who are carrying classroom work are better employment risks. They develop a sense of responsibility and demonstrate greater initiative than those who are not students. Employment is important in the total educational plan since it is the one means by which many persons are ever able to develop a feeling of self-importance. The job tends to bridge the age-old gap between the rather artificial classroom situation and the realities of the work-a-day world.

Practical experience should not end, however, with employment for pay. All students should be encouraged, possibly required, to take a course in Community Resources and Service. If they are to live and work and raise a family and vote intelligently in their community, they should learn as much as possible about that community. They should become intimately acquainted with the aims and work of all of the local service agencies, including the Red Cross, the Boy Scouts, the Council of Churches, the Council of Social Agencies, the Community Chest, the Chamber of Commerce, the City Planning Commission, the Bureau of Recreation, the League of Women Voters, and the various luncheon clubs. Not only should they become intimately acquainted with them, but they should also participate actively in their affairs. Herein lies a major challenge to education. Its possibilities would require another paper to develop. Certainly providing students with an opportunity to participate actively and intelligently in a wide range of school and community affairs is one of the best ways to help them individually toward self-realization. Such experiences propel them towards the establishment of a proper balance between the contributive and the competitive.

SUMMARY

We have touched upon only a few of the many curriculum problems that face the new community college. We have tried to stress the importance of an extensive guidance program and the necessity of a work experience concurrent with attendance in the community college. We have urged wide participation in community affairs and suggested that such participation be made an integral part of the classroom instructional program. We have tried to suggest the value of developing saleable attitudes among students as well as saleable skills. For want of time we have not mentioned such urgent necessities as instruction in marriage and family living, in international relationships, in developing a philosophy of living (although much of what we have said contributes to this). Throughout we have tried to keep in mind that the young people for whom we are attempting to plan a total educational experience have very positive shortcomings when judged on an academic basis only. These are not the "eager beavers." They have no deep-seated "yearning for learning," *but what a job they can do when it is the right job for them!*

What Are the Current Trends in Junior College Education?

JOHN W. HARBESON

THE previous speaker has presented the present-day junior college trends in the field of the curriculum. In accordance with a division of the topic mutually agreed upon by Mr. Wood and myself, I shall confine the scope of this paper to prominent and significant trends in the fields of organization and administration. This paper makes no claims to an exhaustive coverage of the topic. It endeavors only to focus attention on those generally prevailing practices which, in the judgment of the writer, will exert strong influence in the moulding of the future junior college.

DIAMETRICALLY OPPOSED TRENDS

First of all, let us consider two trends diametrically opposed to each other and about which a heated battle has raged in the development of the junior college idea. They rest on opposing philosophies and, in the main, the line of cleavage has been between the public and the private junior colleges. The issue might be stated as to whether the junior college is a logical part of the secondary-school system or a unit of higher education. While there have been some exceptions in both camps, it has been the position of public junior college educators that the thirteenth and fourteenth grades are secondary in character and should be closely articulated with the upper high-school years, while the majority of the private junior college administrators have contended that they should be classified as higher education and, as such, sharply differentiated from the high school with a correspondingly close attachment to the standard college or university.

In these two opposing trends may be found the sharpest differentiation between the public and the private junior colleges. This difference in viewpoint is reflected in the practices of the two types of institutions. Among the public junior colleges there is a well-defined tendency to tie the traditional junior college years with the rest of the secondary-school program. In a number of states the legislatures have, by legal enactment, classified the public junior college as the top-most unit of the secondary-school span. The extent of this articulation varies all the way from a very loose connection, in some communities approaching almost complete isolation, to a closely knit integration such as may be found in the so-called 6-4-4 type of public-school organization. This practice of integrating high school and junior college rests upon the philosophy that the junior college carries to completion the program of secondary education started in the high school and therefore belongs in connection with the high school rather than with the standard college or university. This position of the public junior college

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educators is nowhere better stated than in the following quotation from the writings of Dr. Leonard V. Koos:

Secondary education has in recent years been expanding not merely in horizontal directions, it is extending vertically as well. It has reached downward to include the last two years of the old eight-year elementary school, and it is reaching upwards to the years formerly regarded as the peculiar province of the college. Mighty forces seem now to be carrying us rapidly from a three- or four-year unit to an eight-year period of secondary education. In a number of ways our secondary school is being both broadened and lengthened. What an inspiring contrast is afforded by the single college preparatory isthmus of the earlier period and the serious educational mainland represented in the great American secondary school of tomorrow.¹

As over and against this position of the public junior colleges, there is a general trend on the part of the private junior colleges (again remembering that there are certain notable exceptions) to treat the junior college as a logical division of the field of higher education, and it is their practice to separate entirely from the high school and look to the standard college for their criteria of good practice in the junior college field. They have adopted the terminology and the practices of the standard college. The heads of their institutions are usually designated as "presidents" rather than as "principals" or "directors," and the characteristics of the higher institutions have been applied on the junior college level. Their students are graduated as "sophomores" and they have endeavored to envelop their institutions with that elusive and intangible something commonly referred to as "college atmosphere."

As already pointed out, these two trends are irreconcilable, and time alone can give the answer as to which will ultimately prevail.

TENDENCY TOWARD YEAR-AROUND PROGRAM

A second trend, and one which, in common with the remaining trends to which attention will be directed in this paper, is characteristic of both public and private institutions, is the tendency toward a year-around program. As is well known, excepting in rare instances, the high-school program is limited to a nine- or ten-month academic year. The general practice of junior colleges, on the other hand, is to utilize their plants on a year-around program of twelve months' duration. In most of the large public junior colleges, tuition-free summer schools are maintained of two sessions covering six and five weeks respectively, with enrollments of from one to three thousand students carrying full programs. This is a trend which is definitely on the increase and would seem to be justified on economic as well as on educational grounds. There can be little justification in permitting the huge investments in high schools and junior colleges of America to lie idle for one quarter of the calendar year.

¹ Koos, Leonard V. *The American Secondary School*. New York: Ginn & Company. 1927. P. 45.

FRESHMAN YEAR AS ORIENTATION

Another trend among the junior colleges is to utilize the freshman year as a period of adjustment to a college situation. The transfer from the closely supervised situation of the typical high school to the freedom of a college organization is a crucial step in the student's educational career, and this gap cannot be bridged without painstaking guidance and supervision. The student needs to learn without delay the various portions of the college and its facilities, and what goes on in each situation; he needs to form a personal acquaintance with the faculty and his fellow students; he must know the rules and regulations of the institution; he must learn how to succeed in college; and, most important of all, he must acquire a knowledge of himself and how the opportunities of the college can minister to his particular needs. These adjustments do not automatically happen, and many college students have been known to fail because of the lack of an early orientation within the college environment. I believe it can conservatively be said that the junior colleges are giving more attention to this problem than are the standard colleges and universities. These adjustments are being facilitated by the friendly and planned assistance of both faculty and older students, by the development of programs of instruction in orientation classes, by a comprehensive testing program, and the attention of specially trained student counsellors.

ELIMINATION OF TERM JUNIOR

Another significant trend among the junior colleges is the elimination of the term "junior" in the name of the institution. This tendency is of far greater significance than a mere play upon words. In the minutes of a convention of state school officers held in Los Angeles last year, there appears the following significant statement: "The word 'junior' is a distinct liability in the name of the institution (Junior College). 'Junior' implies diminutive and unchallenging connotations. 'Junior' does not constitute an accurate description of the nature and functions of the institution. It tends to concentrate the thinking of students, faculty, and patrons alike on the university preparatory curriculum, to the exclusion of the relatively more significant terminal function. As a result of these effects, the supporting population is given a distorted view of the real character of the institution."

The commission for the study of higher education in California, headed by Dr. Henry Suzzallo, stated in its published report in 1932: "The term 'junior college' is unfortunate. It is not junior to anything—certainly not to the university in its primary or main function. It is really senior to all common schooling below it—the capstone of socializing or civilizing education."²

² *State Higher Education in California*, Report of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, June 24, 1932.

To meet this situation some of the junior colleges have dropped the term "junior" without introducing any other descriptive adjective in its place—merely calling themselves "colleges." Such a practice can only lead to confusion and possibly some resentment on the part of the standard colleges. It would hardly seem proper for the junior colleges to appropriate without qualification a name which for 300 years has been preempted by another institution to the like of which they do not claim to aspire.

It is for this reason that many junior colleges have substituted another term in place of the adjective "junior" which has had the effect of distinguishing them from the standard college and at the same time freed them from the objectionable features of their old title. By far the most widely accepted of such terms is that of "community college," a term which has found general acceptance in educational literature. In California the most prevalent title is "city college" which is fairly accurate in certain situations but hardly applies in school districts which are not co-terminous with city boundary lines. In the interest of clarity it would be highly desirable if a suitable name could be universally adopted which would eliminate the objectionable character of the term "junior" and which would likewise distinguish it from the standard college.

THE EXTENDED DAY

Still another significant trend is the almost universal adoption of the "extended day," particularly among the public junior colleges. The traditional day of the secondary school closes at approximately 3:00 P.M. As pointed out above, this practice constitutes a woeful lack of utilization of so huge an investment. The junior colleges have made a more defensible use of their facilities. In the typical large public junior college, the school day has been extended to 10:00 o'clock at night. In no other way can the junior college become a genuine community institution serving the entire population in a program of life-long growth and development. The junior college constitutes the logical situation for a program of adult education. If, however, it is to meet the needs of the employed population, it must set up its offerings at hours when they are free to attend. In the large junior colleges extensive offerings are made available in the late afternoons and evenings. These offerings consist of the regular courses of the school day as well as refresher and short unit vocational courses. In the degree granting courses, the same standards are maintained as in the day school and there is no reason why adolescent students who find it more convenient should not enroll in these night classes and receive the same credit as if taken in the regular day. The writer has observed young adolescent students sitting in the same classes with middle-aged men and women in the night program, and, from all appearances, the experience was mutually

profitable. Human education is a life-long process, and, through the program of the extended day, the public junior colleges are making it available free to the masses.

STUDENT PARTICIPATION IN ADMINISTRATION

No more significant trend has developed among the junior colleges than that of converting their campuses into democratic self-governing communities. The typical junior college is truly a laboratory of democracy. The student body is organized as a self-governing democratic society. It maintains its executive, legislative, and judicial departments of government. The students, through their selected representatives, make and enforce their own laws. They apprehend and prosecute the violators of the student code. They mete out their own punishments. Cases of discipline rarely come to the attention of the administration. Faculty advisers, of course, are provided for the student officers, but they function as counsellors rather than as dictators. This experience of the junior college student bodies in the serious business of self government is destined to produce in the future generations of America a body of citizens who can and will make democracy work.

ADOPTION OF STUDENT GUIDANCE UNIVERSAL

No discussion of trends in the junior college would be complete without a recognition of the almost universal adoption of student guidance programs. Guidance is much more extensively provided in the junior colleges than in the standard colleges and universities.

This is probably as it should be inasmuch as many of the most momentous problems of life fall within the junior-college-age span. It is at this period that the young man or woman must choose a life career; he is baffled with doubts and uncertainties of a religious and philosophical character; the inevitable frustrations of maturing life loom serious in his mind; his life philosophy begins to take shape; he falls in love and is confronted with countless problems of a personal and social character. It is appalling to contemplate the vicissitudes which befall a person between the ages of sixteen and twenty.

The weathering of this "storm and stress period" requires the assistance of sympathetic and well-trained counsellors. The provision of this necessary guidance cannot be left to chance, and in recognition of this fact, almost all the junior colleges have set up counselling organizations which automatically bring every student in contact with an efficient faculty adviser.

The tremendous growth of the junior college student bodies is another factor which has made this service necessary. In the old days when few people enrolled in the secondary school but the academically minded, guidance was not so essential. Today, however, the situation has com-

pletely changed. In many communities almost the entire eligible population are enrolled in the junior college. Manifestly not all of these should attempt the university preparatory courses, and with the wide variety of terminal curricula available, a wise selection of courses can only be made through a carefully planned guidance program.

CONCEPT OF COMMUNITY SERVICE

It would be possible to enumerate many other discernable trends in the organization and administration of the junior college. Time, however, will permit but one other and that, in the opinion of the writer, is probably the most important of all—the organization of the institution as a community college. The junior colleges of America are serving more and more as centers of the educational and cultural life of their entire communities. This is a trend which rests on sound educational principles and in the performance of this function the junior college faces its most challenging opportunities.

Under the concept of community service the junior college is to serve the entire community in every age and walk in life. It is based on the philosophy that education is a lifelong process extending from birth to death. In a true sense there can be no completion of education. No matter what degrees a person may have acquired, if he ceases this study on graduation he becomes hopelessly submerged in the onward tide of progress, and he will one day awaken to find that he must be re-educated.

This fact is well known and accepted by all members of the community. Residing in all junior college districts are thousands of people, graduates of high school and even colleges with excellent records, who feel the need of more education, and who would eagerly avail themselves of the opportunities of the junior college if they were made available and placed at hours which would make possible their attendance.

The traditional idea has been that education was for the young alone and it was thought that men who failed to avail themselves of the privileges of education in that period of life had forever lost their opportunities. The figure may be repeatedly found in old educational literature of the youthful mind as a plastic tablet, easily susceptible to impression, and the implication is always there, openly stated or clearly implied, that with advancing years the mind becomes hardened and set like cement, thereby rendering impossible the acquisition of new ideas.

This is, of course, a myth that has been long since exploded and the phenomenal growth of adult education bears witness to the fact that not even the humblest layman any longer accepts it. The studies of Dr. E. L. Thorndike here established the fact that the ability to learn even increases with advancing years, at least into the late fifties. Moreover, we have in every

community living examples of the power of the human intellect to acquire new ideas and continue alert even to the point of senility. Physically speaking, man reaches an early and almost abrupt cessation of his capacity to develop, after which he slowly but surely deteriorates; but the time need never come when he may not continue his intellectual growth providing the opportunity is at hand. It is the sublime privilege of the junior college to provide this opportunity and stimulate man to his maximum lifetime achievement.

The ever-increasing leisure of a modern machine age to which social philosophers continually call our attention is another factor which stimulates man to continuous lifetime intellectual achievement. For the rank and file this increased leisure is a modern phenomenon. The long workday of the past excluded everything but rest and relaxation at the end of the shift. Under such conditions the education of the masses must necessarily cease when work begins.

But today the machine does the work of a score of hands and the opportunity of creative recreational activity is at the door of the average man. This six-to-eight hour day and the five-day week are ceasing to be exceptional. The increased leisure which the shorter working day affords may be a blessing or it may be a curse. Human nature is such that man cannot consume long hours in utter idleness or passive amusement. Leisure, to be satisfying, must be creative. In the profitable use of this leisure the junior college is destined to play a leading role for young and old alike.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion it should be pointed out that the junior college is still in an experimental stage. The trends discussed in the above paragraphs may be but transitory in character. They do, however, indicate the direction toward which the junior college is moving at the present time. The institution has definitely won for itself a place in the American program of education. The exact form and character into which it may ultimately be standardized cannot now be foreseen, but out of the extensive experimentation now in progress we may confidently look forward to the emerging of a great new upper secondary school which is destined to serve as a worthy climax of the American program of free public education.

Nelson L. Bossing, Professor of Secondary Education, College of Education, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minnesota; and *Harold L. Bitting*, Dean, Lyons Township Junior College, La Grange, Illinois, served as discussants.

Group VII—Parlor B

CHAIRMAN: *Edgar G. Johnston*, Professor of Education, College of Education, Wayne University, Detroit, Michigan

How Can We Develop Effective Citizenship Through the Student Council?

GERALD M. VAN POOL

WHEN I was just a youngster, an interesting old character named Railroad Jack used to visit our town rather frequently. He said that he never slept in a room and always asked permission to sleep on the Y.M.C.A. roof. What made him interesting, other than his odd sleeping habits, was his prodigious memory. Asked about any historical personage, he would tell his birth date, main accomplishments, and place and date of his death. We were always fascinated by his ability to reel off hundreds of facts and figures and never make a mistake. Occasionally we would ask him about someone of whom we knew something—possibly a personage we were then currently studying in school, so we could check on his facts. He was always right.

However, even then, when I was quite a bit younger, I wondered what good it ever did Railroad Jack to know so much about so many people. So far as we could tell, this knowledge was never put to any good use. To the best of our knowledge, he never carried on a conversation with anyone concerning the deeds of thousands of famous people he had stored in his mind. He simply knew such facts as he might have secured from an encyclopedia and repeated them, parrot-like, to any one who would listen. Railroad Jack contributed nothing to the world's knowledge, not even an idea or an opinion—nothing but a few moments of strange and unusual entertainment.

I wonder, sometimes, just why the rest of us remember some things and forget others. Why, for example, do I remember the shoe-shine boy, many years ago, who started to shine my shoes without first removing the dust and dirt? He simply started to shine right over the dirt. Why should I remember that? I am certain that this little incident will never do anyone any good and that I can never use it except, perhaps, as an example in a talk. Why do I remember that more than thirty years ago I broke a cheap little vase in my aunt's home? On the other hand, why can't I

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remember the names of the interesting people I met at a party last night, and why do all of us forget, for days, to mail the letters our wives put in our topcoat pocket?

Educators and psychologists probably have an answer, a scientific explanation of the reason we remember some things and forget others. I understand that, on occasion, we remember the things we want to remember and forget the things we want to forget. But our job, as educators, is to devise some means to help our students want to remember at least some of the things which they experience in school. I do not know of any hard and fast rule to follow; I do not know of any infallible device which will guarantee absolutely that our students will remember the things we are trying to teach them.

Fred Hechinger, writing in *Harper's* magazine, comments on youth conditions in post-war Germany. He tells us that there are still many German youth who remember all too well what they were taught in Hitler days. He states that whatever else was criminal about the Nazis, they did effectively, though unscrupulously, capitalize on the importance of youth. "To the German youth, bored by teachers who were both pedantic and aristocratic, the bonfire of Nazism was a new inspiration." As Hitler dramatized almost everything he did, he consequently appealed to the German love of pageantry. Many of those who were caught in the frenzy of excitement, so spine-tingling in its emotional impact, are still ardent Nazis and have, even now, only love and reverence for the man who put on such a good show. German youth has not forgotten the lessons taught them under Hitler, and one of our most difficult but essential tasks in Germany is to undo some of the damage done to German youth in its most formative years. It *is* not and it *will* not be easy. We shall have to match our wits against the masters of pomp and pageantry to prove that democracy is better and has more to offer than Nazism. Can we do it? Can we do it in the United States, to say nothing of Germany? How do we proceed? What do we have to offer? What can we say and what can we do that will help our American youth remember the lessons of Democracy as well as Hitler's youth remember the lessons of the Nazis?

We hope, of course, that we can make a more intelligent and intellectual appeal than did the Nazis. We hope that we are not trying to rear a generation of flag-wavers only and that we are teaching our youngsters to do a little better than repeat, like Railroad Jack, the facts which we have put into their mouths. We want our students to learn and to remember the lessons of Democracy. How can we make this possible?

Last year there was considerable difficulty getting the New York opera season under way. There were numerous announcements to the effect that

because of seemingly insurmountable difficulties there would be no opera season at all. At this point, Billy Rose—the New York showman—stepped forward and offered to take over the task of managing the Metropolitan Opera for the current season. Furthermore, he guaranteed to make it pay! For numerous reasons beyond my knowledge, his offer was not accepted and, in due time, the opera season opened, though a bit late. I do not know what changes Billy Rose would have made nor what he had in mind. I do not pretend to know what dead wood he would have removed nor whether he would have revered the musty traditions of the opera. Possibly, an opera under Billy Rose would have taken on many of the characteristics of a high class night club. At any rate, the results of his fertile imagination and an application of his knowledge of what people like and will pay good money to see would have been something definitely exciting.

We educators are faced with somewhat the same problems which faced the directors of the Metropolitan Opera Company. We, too, have to work out a program that will have definite appeal, that will be interesting, that will be attractive, and that will pay off. Show business pays off in cash customers; the results of teaching, unfortunately, are not immediately apparent nor are the results of our teaching easy to determine. Billy Rose can quickly tell if his latest show is a flop or a smasher. Satisfied customers can and do leave one of his good shows and tell their friends that they must, by all means, go to see it. Citizens, however, do not generally go around testifying to their friends about how much better they feel now that they are good citizens. They don't generally ask their friends if they don't also want to try good citizenship. Maybe we need an educational Billy Rose. Maybe we need someone who can dramatize or teach us how to dramatize the benefits of good citizenship, to awaken people to an understanding of their duties and their responsibilities as good citizens.

We have no educational Billy Rose. We do, however, have an organization that has made amazing progress in dramatizing Democracy; an organization that has helped to bring home to the young citizen, forcefully and effectively, the manner in which he can practice good citizenship; it shows him the way to Make Democracy Live by Making Democracy Work!

THE STUDENT COUNCIL AS APPRENTICESHIP FOR CITIZENSHIP

The Student Council has been one of the most successful recent high-school organizations to help us in our efforts to teach our young people to help themselves. In a remarkably few short years, the Student Council has made rapid advances and has helped students to learn the business of good citizenship by being good citizens, by doing the things which good citizens do. There is no particular point here to describing the Student Council nor how it operates. It has become so popular and has been established in so

many hundreds of high schools that most principals have at least heard of the Student Council or have had some contact with it. Rather, it would be better to state some of the activities in which the Student Council has engaged and examine the reasons for its success in the teaching of good citizenship.

OPPORTUNITY FOR ACTIVE PARTICIPATION

First, probably, is the fact that the Student Council provides an opportunity for all students who want to participate. We probably learn best and remember those things which we have done and not just read about. Our girls learn to bake bread by studying about it, to be sure. But they also learn to bake by baking. Our boys study the use of common tools, but they do their best when they finally make a bird house, a club shanty, or just a shelf for the pantry. Students learn about democracy by study and by practice. They learn to be good citizens by *doing* the things which a good citizen does.

OPPORTUNITY FOR REAL SERVICE

Second: Service on the Student Council provides our young people with ample opportunity to use their imagination in the rendering of various services. It may be difficult to believe that high-school students can conceive of the hundreds of projects in which we know they have engaged. But their letters, reports, and answers to questionnaires all bear testimony to their vivid imaginations and how they were used to extend the benefits of good citizenship to others. In *The 1948 Student Councils Handbook* there is a list of fifty-four student council-community projects which Student Councils carried out last year. There are hundreds more like these, but this list of fifty-four gives an excellent idea of how Student Council drives can and do operate. Some schools have planned a community safety drive; others have operated a youth center; one has even undertaken to pay off the mortgage on a school in France. Possibly Billy Rose should turn to some of our high-school Student Councils for imagination and resourcefulness of ideas. The high-school Student Council provides an incentive for students to use their imaginations and to put to good use their creative abilities.

DRAMATIZES AMERICAN FORM OF GOVERNMENT

Third: The Student Council provides an opportunity to dramatize our form of government. We have been criticized, and rightly so, for our laxness in impressing upon our young people the marvels of our land and the superiority of the form of government under which we live. We have been accused of accepting everything that we have purely as a matter of course and of doing little to explain and to demonstrate that what we now have once had to be fought for and still has to be fought for. We must

convince our people that there are those who would willingly destroy what we know as the American Way of Life. Fred Hechinger says: "The German leaders may have been evil and unscrupulous but they were young and they were daring. If we are to do anything about reclaiming the youth of Hitler's day, we cannot return to the bearded pedantry of Weimar days." In our own America, we, too, must offer a little color, a little life, pageantry, and dramatic activity other than just seating our youth in dull and dry classrooms and telling them that Democracy is good. It is not enough to tell them. Some won't believe us; many others won't remember what we tell them anyway. We have not yet discovered any magic formula to make people remember what we tell them, so I repeat: Simply *telling* won't help us much, nor will it necessarily make good citizens out of our high-school students. The Student Council, however, provides an opportunity to put democracy into action and action into democracy; it dramatizes the activities, the interests, and the possibilities of our form of government. The Student Council deals with problems that are presently real—problems that arise within every school community and which require solutions arrived at in a democratic way if the welfare of the group is to be the desired result. But the Student Council, even with all its fine and most worth-while activities, cannot and will not attempt to initiate the pagan ceremonies commonly used in Hitler's day.

INCREASES ABILITY TO THINK

Fourth: The Student Council helps our students to "use their heads," to think, to make their own decisions, and to accept responsibility. Possibly this sounds unusual at a time and in a country where many forces are at work to relieve us of the terrifying ordeal of having to think at all. For example, there is now an arrangement by which we can receive a book every month but we have not had to do any thinking or selecting. A board of experts tells us what they think we ought to read and sends us the book of their choice. This is not all. It is now possible to receive not only a book each month but also a game, a necktie, a puzzle, a basket of fruit, and even a cheese-of-the-month. And we don't have to think at all. We can now get magazines which pre-digest other magazine articles and print only the most salient points. We don't have to read books—even those that have been chosen for us—as we can now get books in pre-digested form; in the matter of a few minutes we get the gist of what the author was trying to say without doing all of the mental work necessary to reading the book and determining what are the essentials in it. It may be somewhat unusual to say it, but the Student Council does encourage its members to think.

Council members in many schools are called in by the principals to give their opinion on what is going on in the school, to advise him on necessary

steps to be taken, to report to him on matters to be taken up with the faculty. One needs only to sit in on a Council meeting in a school or attend a session at a Student Council conference to know that, whatever the rest of us are doing, the Student Council is thinking. Thus, the members are experiencing one of the first prerequisites of the good citizen—the ability to gather facts, weigh them, and upon these facts make a decision. In other words, they are thinking—they are “using their heads.”

A FORCE IN DEMOCRATIC ADMINISTRATION

Fifth: There is considerable evidence to support my belief that the Student Council has also had a salutary effect on the high-school faculty and on classroom management. Whether we like to admit it or not, there is a tendency on the part of some teachers to be autocratic and domineering. Many American teachers are rugged individualists and resent “being told.” Some teachers have not taken suggestions kindly and have regarded student recommendations as impudent. However, in conversations with various principals and teachers, I have noticed a growing awareness of the potentialities of the Student Council in classroom management and in reducing friction between the faculty and students. Teachers are demonstrating a willingness to delegate some classroom responsibilities to students and to depend upon them for suggestions for improvement. I believe that one of the great results of the Student Council has been a reducing of autocratic rule in the classroom and a better, healthier spirit of friendliness and mutual co-operation.

DEVELOPS SOCIAL CONSCIOUSNESS

It is the fond hope of those of us who work with young people that through their Student Council experiences they will have gained at least a little something in the matter of judgment. They will make mistakes, to be sure, but we all learn through our mistakes and the Student Council should be no exception. It is our hope that the sum total of all the experiences a Student Council has had in school and in his Student Council will fit him to be a better, more alert, and more socially-conscious citizen than he was before. We cannot expect our young citizens automatically to be the kind of adult citizens we want them to be at the moment they become of age, at twenty-one. There is nothing magic about that moment. The student will be the same person the day after he becomes twenty-one as he was the day before. One way to help him be the kind of citizen we want him to be both before and after he is twenty-one is to give him regularly and in full measure the experience of doing what a good citizen does. The Student Council provides this experience.

MAKE DEMOCRACY LIVE BY MAKING DEMOCRACY WORK

I could go on. There are literally hundreds of good results which we can reasonably expect from participation in Student Council work: an awareness of world affairs, an understanding of how government functions, an appreciation of the duties and responsibilities of good citizens, the responsibilities of government officials, a realization of matters constantly impinging upon the head of a school and his assistants, the sudden awareness that all events must be well-planned in advance to insure their success, facility in on-the-spot thinking gained in numerous give-and-take round tables and discussions, and many others. One of the best ways to learn to do something is to do it; one of the best ways to learn to be a good citizen is to do the things which a good citizen does.

What will our students remember of what we are trying to teach them? How can we best present our material to them to gain reasonable assurance that they will remember and be affected by it. Do we really need a Billy Rose? At least part of the answer seems to be found in the student council. It seems reasonable to suppose that these young students, these young citizens of our country will have a better appreciation of what they are expected to do as American citizens because of their experiences in being a good citizen of the school community. It does not seem too much to assume that, having had experience as Student Council members, they will be more intelligent, more alert, more informed, and more desirable American citizens than they would have been without that experience. Let's, then, encourage our young people to assume their fair share in making this country the kind of country they want to live in, this world the kind of world which will be favorable to all peoples of all nations. Let's not just talk about Democracy, but let's Make Democracy Live by Making Democracy Work! Let's not just talk about good citizenship but, rather, follow the lead assumed by the Student Council. We need have little fear of the road it will take.

How Can We Develop Effective Citizenship Through the Student Council?

ARNOLD R. MEIER

DURING the past two decades there has been a decided trend in public education to embrace a broad definition of curriculum. Years ago the curriculum was identified as an organized listing of facts and skills to be learned. At present, the broad definition might be stated as follows: The curriculum is all of the experiences which children have under the guidance

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of the school. The reasons for the trend toward a broad definition seem to be grounded on a realistic conception of how effective learning takes place and upon a new awareness of the social goals of education. The net effect of the newer conception of the curriculum is to force schools to re-examine their program, to identify the purposes of instruction as complexes and wholes, and to re-think the relationships between means and ends. In this procedure most so-called extracurricular activities become definitely curricular.

STUDENT COUNCIL STILL EXTRACURRICULAR

This shift of activities to regular curriculum status is not difficult in many instances since it requires a change or a shift in the viewpoint of individual teachers. It is achieved as certain teachers in their classrooms, without affecting other teachers or groups, include activities and procedures which were formerly pursued in an out-of-class activity. The Student Council, however, which affects and involves all individuals and groups in the school, has not made the transition from extracurricular to curricular status so easily. To make this transition the entire school must re-examine its purposes for maintaining a Student Council and re-think the procedures which are used to achieve these purposes. Even after some agreements concerning purposes have been reached, considerable understanding, planning, and co-operation are necessary before a maximum return in learning may be expected. However, there is reason to believe that the potential value of the Student Council is so great that the effort necessary to improve its effectiveness will be rewarded. This belief is bolstered by the two following important considerations:

1. *The Student Council as a teaching device, as a learning situation, allows the school to utilize what is known about how people learn most efficiently.* The Student Council provides a means of instruction in which the activities performed and the learning that accrues are closely related to a real situation in which the learning is to be applied. There is no need to have the transfer of training long delayed or used in a situation which is only remotely meaningful. The Student Council deals with many problems which are currently vital and interesting to the people involved. Hence, the learning will be effective since it is accompanied by interest. These advantages seem to be in accord with educational research findings about transfer of training, realism, interest, and readiness.

2. *The Student Council is a means to achieve the major purpose of public schools—the improvement of the insights and skills of citizens so that they one day direct their own destiny as a nation in the accepted democratic pattern.* Schools have accepted the responsibility of developing effective citizens. The inclusion of such subject-matter areas as social studies,

history, geography, current events, community civics, economics, American problems, and government indicate one of the efforts the schools have made to discharge this responsibility. There are also methods and procedures such as co-operative group work, determining group purposes, projecting possible consequences of actions, planning, problem solving, and evaluation which are closely related to citizenship training. These procedures are frequently used in out-of-class organizations. Of these organizations there is probably none which includes more succinctly than does the Student Council those attitudes, values, knowledges, and skills which coincide with what is generally accepted as the nucleus or complex of factors important in discharging citizenship responsibilities.

PROVIDE CITIZENSHIP TRAINING

Studies of Student Council objectives seem to show that in the past ten years there has been a decided trend toward the inclusion of statements of which the following is typical: *to provide citizenship training*. The frequency with which it is mentioned almost doubled in the Student Councils studied by one investigator during a six-year period, but even then such objectives were not specifically stated by more than half of the schools studied. This may not be as serious as it appears on the surface. More important than the question of whether the Student Council charter or constitution includes such an objective is the question: Does the school believe that the major reason for organizing or maintaining a Student Council is the teaching of citizenship? More definitely stated the question might be: Do teachers believe that boys and girls need to have opportunities in Student Council activities to test democratic values in action; to understand the meaning of representative government by participation at their level; to experience the privileges and responsibilities of democratic citizenship; to practice skills by participating in the solution of common problems; to gain skills in techniques of co-operative action; and to experience the kind of group living and human relationships which result? If the professional personnel responsible for the school's instructional program accept these objectives in a general way, and believe that the Student Council may be an effective means of achieving more adequate citizenship, what are some of the steps which must be taken to insure the maximum results from this teaching device?

COURSES OF ACTION

Three propositions will be presented at this point which will indicate a possible course of action if the Student Council is to be effective in developing citizenship. There are many more that are related, but those presented here come from the experience of several Citizenship Education Study staff

members and from many teachers in several schools participating in the Study. The propositions, simply stated, are:

1. If the Student Council as a teaching device, as a means for providing valuable learning experience, is to be really successful in promoting citizenship, it must be so conceived that it gives these experiences to *all* of the students—not merely those few who are formally selected to serve.
2. If all students are to be included in the learning situation, the faculty as a whole, and not merely the sponsor or the committee specifically assigned this task, has a job to do. The school must be much more specific in identifying those values, skills, and viewpoints which are to be considered and taught. This means, among other things, the defining of democracy for a particular school in a meaningful, realistic, and detailed way.
3. If a concerted effort is made to make the Student Council more effective, it will require considerable *total school* interaction, communication, and co-operative effort. This, in itself, will represent a major undertaking in the use of the democratic process by the faculty.

The first proposition assumes that in almost all of the Student Councils in our high schools, except the most rigid rubber stamp variety, the members who sit in the Council and deliberate on the many questions and problems which are posed have many valuable learning experiences. As in society at large, however, the great mass of students are often lethargic. In adult life we bemoan the fact that many citizens are not well informed, that they read only the sports page and the comics, and listen only to radio programs which feature variety shows, soap operas, and mystery stories. A school which has the responsibility of planning the use of students' time and the responsibility for promoting more adequate citizenship cannot shift the blame to students as we shift it to non-voters in adult life. Educators must either decide they will discharge this obligation in other ways than through the use of the Student Council, make a concerted total school effort to do the job for all students, or be content to do a half job of training a few for leadership. The term *half job* in connection with the leadership training is used advisedly because it is difficult to imagine training democratic leaders who have an untrained lethargic constituency. A decision to use the Student Council as a teaching device for all students probably means that most schools will spend more time on this activity. It means more.

The second proposition means that the faculty as a whole has a job to do. The job cannot be done by the Student Council sponsor or a committee to whom the matter might be referred. As most Student Councils are now organized, the representatives are chosen from a group of twenty to fifty students who are directly responsible to some teacher. It is in the small class group or the homeroom that most of the teaching will probably be done

if it is to be effective. It is here that ideas will be initiated and discussed which ultimately reach the Council for deliberation. It is here that Council action will be reported, discussed, and evaluated. It is in the small group that the involvement of all students will be attempted and the face-to-face human relationship aspects of group living will be explored. The simpler skills of parliamentary procedure, reporting, and discussion can be taught without much difficulty if all teachers accept the responsibility. There is, however, need to teach the use of the method of intelligence in problem solving when dealing with vital social issues which are real to the group. Particular attention is called to this skill since there is evidence that problem solving related to social issues is not generally or uniformly taught in our secondary schools. Any thorough-going movement in this direction is a major enterprise. One approach to this matter is included in a Citizenship Study pamphlet called *Problem Solving*.¹

The most difficult part of the teaching required in promoting citizenship through the Student Council concerns the application of democratic values or beliefs to the variety of situations which come under consideration. If the teaching in this regard is to be at all adequate and uniform, the school must attempt a detailed, realistic, meaningful definition of democracy and there must be some agreement by the faculty concerning the values included in the definition. The achievement of this agreement is not as simple as it might appear. In our society there is no inclusive, precise definition with which all agree, and it is not likely that the schools will develop an inclusive definition. This does not, however, prevent a detailing of the specific ideas on which there is general agreement.

An attempt in this direction is included in a short outline published by the Citizenship Education Study titled, *Understanding Democracy*.² The pamphlet lists some of the more commonly accepted democratic values and attempts to relate them to school situations.

The third proposition is related to the interaction of faculty members which is necessary to implement the ideas described in the first two propositions. To secure the greatest impact, the greatest total effect for improved citizenship through the Student Council, the individuals who teach should have common goals and expectations concerning their activities as well as a rather uniform approach to the various situations which will arise. Many of these perceptions cannot be communicated as facts, and hortatives are not

¹ The Citizenship Education Study. *Problem Solving*. The Citizenship Education Study, 436 Merrick Ave., Detroit 2, Michigan.

² Cleary, F.; Davis, A.; and Meier, Arnold R. *Understanding Democracy*. The Citizenship Education Study, 436 Merrick Ave., Detroit 2, Michigan.

likely to be any more effective in this case than they are in other similar cases. Teachers will gain a real understanding of the problem if a setting is provided in which they may, in small groups, explore the problem, examine a variety of situations, and democratically attempt to arrive at agreements which will not only permit, but also foster a co-operative uniform attack on the problem. Several schools participating in the Citizenship Education Study attempted to use this general procedure. In all cases increased involvement on the part of teachers was noted. Vague notions were sharpened. Agreements concerning skills and beliefs were listed and a tentative program of action was outlined. Since, however, all of the teachers had not been involved in small study groups, the question of getting total faculty agreement became a real problem. In an effort to present the thinking of the small group to the entire faculty for their informal discussion and consideration, a list of some of the more important aspects of and beliefs about the Student Council was compiled. This outline has been published under the title, *Let's Look at the Student Council*,³ in the hope that the material may also be useful to other schools. It is the opinion of those working on this project that the entire faculty must engage in an examination of the problem before any large-scale results will be possible.

IMPACT OF STUDENT COUNCIL ON TEACHING IN ALL AREAS

The effects of such a school-wide approach which includes an examination of democratic values will be effective in improving teaching in areas other than the Student Council. If the activity is at all penetrating, it will indicate that the ideas are applicable in many phases of school life since democracy is not restricted to deliberative, legislative, or governing functions, but to a way of living together.

Elden D. Finley, Superintendent, Delavan Community High School, Delavan, Illinois; *F. J. Herda*, Principal, Technical High School, Saint Cloud, Minnesota; and *Cliff Robinson*, Director of Secondary Education, State Department of Education, Salem, Oregon, served as discussants.

³Meier, Arnold R., Cleary, F., and Davis, A. *Let's Look at the Student Council*. The Citizenship Education Study, 436 Merrick Avenue, Detroit 2, Michigan.

Group VIII—Parlor C

CHAIRMAN: *Howard G. Spalding*, Principal, A. B. Davis High School, Mount Vernon, New York; Chairman, National Council of the National Honor Society and the National Junior Honor Society, National Association of Secondary-School Principals

What Devices for Recognizing and Encouraging Student Achievement?

R. B. NORMAN

FUNDAMENTALLY, the desire for the recognition of one's worth is a human urge of such importance that it cannot be discounted nor ignored in any diagnostic study of the behavior of either individuals or groups. An honest survey of the chief life ambitions of young people will reveal their ambitions not as desires to accumulate wealth, obtain economic security, gain command over one's fellows, "subdue kingdoms, or stop the mouths of lions," but on the contrary, a survey will show this human desire for recognition highest among their wants. Parents, counselors, and educators who, in dealing with youth, fail to recognize this psychological "phenomenon" are destined to miss the mark.

THE DESIRE FOR RECOGNITION

Our psychology of administration, counseling, teaching, and directing pupil activities will scarcely miss the mark if we admit this basic assumption as truth. It more often than not accounts for outstanding achievement in scholarship, athletics, and literary attainments; and at the same time, it can be credited for all forms of reprehensible or culpable conduct of youth. This urge often takes the form of a desire to be socially acceptable with one's fellows, including the opposite sex. How often, when youthful delinquents are apprehended and questioned as to reasons for their conduct, their reply is, "I don't know why I did it. I just did." If the "delinquent" were honest, or intelligent, or both, he might as well say, "I did it to prove my superiority and/or to win the approval of others, whose approval I wanted." If we accept this fundamental concept as a psychological basis for a set of criteria calculated to satisfy this urge, we run the whole gamut of pupil activities, clubs, honor organizations, and motivating exercises as examples of devices for the recognition and encouragement of student achievement.

STUDENT ACHIEVEMENT NOT IN SCHOLARSHIP ALONE

By student achievement reference is not made to achievement in scholarship alone. No more may man live by knowledge alone than by bread

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alone. It is, perhaps, a generally accepted fact that many high-school pupils profit from participation in extra-class activities as much, or more, than in class activities. This would depend, of course, upon the content and methods used in class. The activities programs of our best ordered high schools furnish laboratories for the practical application of much of the learnings and skills obtained in class. It is largely through the extra-class activities that pupils discover their talents and interests. Assuming these premises correct, we conclude that to encourage such activities is to encourage student achievement.

In the treatment of this subject, attention is directed primarily to the recognition and encouragement of individual achievement. This is not to ignore, however, the fact that achievement by high-school students often becomes group action. For convenience, the term "achievement" is sub-divided into the areas where it is most commonly found:

1. Scholarship
2. Athletics
3. The Fine Arts
4. Service Organizations
5. Social Life

Scholarship Achievement—There are many standard and accepted devices for the recognition of scholarship. Perhaps the most important is the National Honor Society for Secondary Schools which recognizes not only scholarship but also character, leadership, and service. The National Honor Society Chapter may take whatever form a local school may wish. It is commonly used as a service club in the school performing many and varied functions. This seems to be the most desirable role for it to take.

Other organizations or devices for the recognition of scholarship are:

- (1) Scholarship societies wherein scholarship constitutes the principal basis for the selection of members.
- (2) The National Athletic Society for athletes who are outstanding in scholarship.
- (3) Scholarship standards for participation in interscholastic contests. Our state interscholastic league organizations uniformly establish scholarship standards for participants.
- (4) Exemption from examinations—Many high schools set scholarship standards for exemption from final examinations, particularly for seniors at the time of graduation.
- (5) College scholarships—The numerous college scholarships now available to freshmen requiring high scholastic standing are a new inducement to higher marks, especially to high-school seniors.

- (6) Honor rolls—Honor rolls released at the end of grading periods may serve as a stimulant for higher marks. This is especially true if proper publicity is given in the school and community.
- (7) The recognition of effort—Periodically and consistently, students who show improvement from time to time should be recognized and encouraged for their efforts.
- (8) Class room procedures and methods—Perhaps the most effective secret for developing and encouraging higher scholarship lies within the methods and attitudes assumed by class room teachers. Teachers with understanding and sympathy, plus a knowledge of all the most effective methods of teaching, can do more, perhaps, by way of encouragement than all other agencies combined. The use by teachers of life adjustment education—implications, principles, and practices—motivates student effort.
- (9) Surveys—Periodic objective surveys of the whole field of student achievement through questionnaires, discussion groups, guidance clinics, and the school testing program, with publication and open study of the results, may serve to promote greater interest.

Athletic Achievement—In the average high school, it is scarcely necessary to encourage athletic participation. Participation is usually limited only by a lack of facilities and coaching personnel. Common inducements to achievement, if needed, consist of recognition through pep rallies, newspaper and radio publicity, banquets honoring athletes, most valuable player awards, possible college athletic scholarships, the school monogram, substitution of athletic participation for required courses in physical education, participation in the intramural competitions, and social prestige as a by-product of athletic participation.

Speech, Journalism, Dramatics, Music—Activity in these fields is encouraged and recognized through possible membership in national organizations such as, The National Thespian Society for dramatics, the National Forensic Society for speech (declamation, oratory, extemporaneous speech, debate, lyric reading, etc.), participation in speech tournaments, appearance in assembly programs and before social and civic clubs. In journalism, membership in the National Quill and Scroll Society is sought. In music, numerous assembly appearances, music festivals, football trips for the band, clinics for the orchestra, the regional and state music contests in choral and instrumental music, and frequent concerts, operettas, operas, and appearance before civic, social and other groups. In addition to these inducements, the school monogram or letter is sometimes awarded for participation in these activities.

Service Organizations and Officers of Honor—By service organizations reference is made to various types of service clubs, sometimes the National Honor Society, Student Council, Hi-Y, Hi-Teens or Girl Reserve, high-school Chambers of Commerce and the like. By offices of honor, reference is made to the DAR award to girls, best all-around boy and girl graduate award, the boy and the girl of the week—selected by the local school paper, "Who's who" in school—conducted by publications staff, the popularity favorites who are honored at the Popularity Ball, the high-school queen, choir queen, band queen, the boy and girl of the month, (In the Amarillo High School, these are selected by a secret committee of students and faculty members and are called Typical Sandies. They are selected on the basis of wholehearted co-operation and unselfish service to the school and are awarded figurines called Varsity Vic and Kampus Kate in the school colors.), class officers; the most outstanding students of the year in dramatics, speech, forensics, service to the school, music, boys' athletics, girls' athletics, etc. (These outstanding pupils are awarded medals or trophies at graduation time).

Social Achievement—Social acceptability or recognition is usually a by-product of achievement in another field. Position or office may mean quite different things in different schools. In the Amarillo High School, considerable importance is attached to the offices of high-school queen and her courtiers, cheer leaders, school favorites, ROTC sponsors, and even membership on the major athletic teams. Ballroom dancing, the square dance, and roller skating, either two or three nights a week, afford considerable social and physical recreation.

AMARILLO'S PLAN OF RECOGNITION

Many high schools employ most or all of the foregoing devices for recognizing and encouraging student achievement. The Amarillo High School engages in a number of practices designed to recognize and encourage student effort which, we believe, are not commonly found in high schools. They include:

- (1) Recognition and praise over the public address system for any outstanding act of school loyalty, exhibition of school spirit, demonstration of co-operation, example of unselfish service to the school, manifestation of honesty as shown, e.g., by turning in unidentified and valuable articles like loose money, for marked improvement in school marks covering a grading period, for worthy performance in any competition or contest, for perfect attendance and punctuality, for initiative in correcting wrong, and for any and all kinds of accomplishments or conduct above the level of ordinary. Both faculty and students are urged regularly to submit names to be recognized daily. Seldom does a day pass that students are not praised by name before the whole school. In fact,

the opening exercise and devotional begins over the public address daily by greeting everyone who has a birthday. A different student reads the scripture daily, another sings, and several organists are used. All assemblies are presided over by students; most of them are student assemblies. All home rooms have officers and conduct student programs weekly. All classes have deputy student teachers, roll checkers, monitors, and fire marshalls.

- (2) The Amarillo High School uses a system of awards broad in scope. A recent survey showed some 1300 of 1800 students engaged in some extra-class activity. Of this number, some 500 will be awarded the school letter. Activities normally having no financial income receive their letters or awards from the General Activity Fund. Both major and minor letters are awarded—both chenille and silver or gold. A faculty committee on awards grants letters on the basis of definite standards in each activity plus worthy citizenship and scholarship.

The school monogram, or letter, is granted in the following activities: football, basketball, baseball, tennis, golf, volley-ball for girls, track, marksmanship, intramural managers, wrestling, band, orchestra, choir, dramatics, essay, Spanish, Latin, number sense, slide rule, declamation, oratory, extempore, debate, discussion, and others.

Awards are given for excellence of performance in other activities which are not recognized for the school "A." Among these are intramural medals for championship teams, stage hands, motion picture projector operators, managers of intramurals, assistants in gym classes, efficiency in ROTC, etc.

Certificates of Merit are given student librarians, study hall roll checkers, deputy teachers, graders, and students in general.

Two special assemblies are held near commencement. One is for oral recognition of outstanding accomplishments of teams and individuals of whatsoever kind. Certificates of Merit are awarded at this assembly. The second assembly is devoted to the formal presentation of trophies and awarding of school letters.

At the graduation exercise, a student program, awards are made as follows: scholarships, cash educational subsidies, best all-around boy and girl graduate awards, and awards to the most outstanding students in library service, speech, music, boys' athletics, girls' athletics, student council, office work, and service to the school.

What might constitute another general field for student achievement is the area of Democracy. The Amarillo High School has operated for the last two years under an Honor System. This is a system based upon voluntary obedience to regulations. It is self-discipline, self-control, or self-government

of the individual. It is predicated upon the hypothesis of a balance between freedom and privilege on the one hand and obligation and responsibility on the other. Some freedoms or privileges which it makes possible are: (1) no tardy bells, (2) no teacher supervision of corridors, cafeteria lines, and dining room, (3) voluntary payment of admission to pay programs and subscription to the school paper, occasional free home-room periods, and the morning social recreation period.

In addition to the privileges which students can have under the Honor System there are other and greater values derived in the form of better pupil-teacher relationships, release of teachers from police duties and certain tensions, feeling by pupils that they are not being "pushed around," development by pupils of strength of character through choice of right rather than by compulsion, and a feeling that the school is conducted democratically. Student opinion and discussion precedes all changes in regulations.

What Devices for Recognizing and Encouraging Student Achievement?

MARTIN M. MANSPERGER

THE problems implied in the topic which has been selected for discussion this afternoon are not new to the secondary-school people of America. The hothouse environment in which most secondary pupils live and work today has driven teachers and school administrators, during the past decade, to greater effort in a search for devices which will encourage pupils to greater effort in reaching the goals set for them by local high schools, colleges, and skilled and unskilled business concerns which are willing and ready to employ pupils just out of high school.

The natural and ever-present incentives to great effort which were present in the environment of the high-school student one or possibly two generations ago are partially or wholly lacking in our urban communities today. It is pretty generally agreed by all persons who work with young people that our high-school students today are given entirely too much by their parents, the school, and the community. To a generation so pampered, it becomes increasingly difficult for high-school students to see the need or the desirability for outstanding achievement in any one of the wide variety of activities (curricular and extracurricular) which are now offered in the modern high school.

DEVICES USED IN NEW YORK

It shall be my purpose this afternoon, in the brief time allotted to me, to give you a picture of how the high schools of New York State in general,

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and the Nassau County high schools in particular (located in the metropolitan area of New York), are attempting to meet this need in secondary education. On a one-page questionnaire, high-school principals of New York State have listed a large number of devices which individual high schools have used effectively in recognizing and encouraging students to greater achievement. I shall mention only those which, in the opinion of principals and teachers, have been most effective and those which would appear to have the greater possibility of adaptability in meeting the needs of secondary schools throughout the nation—rural, urban, large, and small.

1. CERTIFICATES OF MERIT

Many schools have recognized scholastic achievement and made it popular by giving certificates of merit in the high-school assembly, before the entire student body, to all pupils whose names have appeared on the honor rolls for each of the marking periods during the school year. In some high schools the dramatic department co-operates by putting on a short, one-act play on some phase of scholastic achievement in which the hero is the boy or girl who has made the greatest achievement in some scholastic field. Following this presentation, certificates of merit are awarded by the high-school principal to all students who have qualified. The value of this type of presentation lies in the fact that scholarship has been dignified by honoring outstanding scholars in the same manner that most high schools honor their outstanding athletes.

2. EXHIBITS OF CLASS WORK

Class room teachers in a number of the high schools reporting have found room displays featuring *superior work* and *improvement in work* very effective in encouraging outstanding achievement.

Many high schools in Nassau County hold annual exhibits for one or more days in the spring of the year for the purpose of recognizing outstanding achievement in all departments of the school program. Teachers are on duty in their respective class rooms to explain work on display and to visit with parents who attend these exhibits. The work featured shows the progress of pupils and represents the best work done by each pupil during the year. As a special feature, a physical education demonstration in the gymnasium or a style show featuring the work of the household arts department is held on the opening night of the exhibit. One school reports that it is a common experience to have from three to four thousand parents and friends of the school attend these exhibits some time during the week.

3. FIELD TRIPS

A number of high schools have found field trips of value in encouraging student achievement. These trips are taken on school time under

teacher supervision and are very popular with the students. Social studies, science, speech, and music teachers are especially enthusiastic over field trips as effective in motivating pupils to greater achievement. Since students must be passing in all subjects which are missed because of these trips, the general scholastic average of each pupil is usually affected.

Field trips are used in some high schools as a reward for those who achieve in some field of school endeavor. For example, in one high school in Westchester County winners of the American Legion Prize Speaking Contest, held in co-operation with the local post of the American Legion, are given a trip to Old Williamsburg with all expenses paid.

4. INDIVIDUAL CONFERENCES

Most of the high schools of New York State and all of the high schools of Nassau County have at least one full-time counselor. Under the leadership of the guidance counselor, and often at his direction, the individual conference is rapidly being accepted as one of the most effective devices for recognizing and encouraging student achievement. The individual conference helps to encourage and build the morale of the pupil who would otherwise become discouraged in his effort to reach the goal or goals which have been set up for him by the teachers in the school.

In one six-year high school in Nassau County, failing students are seen by the guidance counselors at the end of each marking period. This conference is often followed by a teacher-pupil conference to the end that pupils may know the nature of their difficulty and be encouraged to overcome their failures. In this same school, pupils who have made unusual progress and who have earned superior marks are called in for a pat on the back and a word of praise.

5. EXCHANGE ASSEMBLIES

The exchange of assembly programs has been used by some of the schools of New York State to stimulate great interest and effort in music, dramatics, and speech. Pupils have been inspired to greater effort by watching, in the assembly period, an outstanding performance by a group of students from a neighboring high school. For example, a large high school in Nassau County is especially strong in instrumental work and has a nationally famous marching band, but this same school is weak in vocal music. A school of like size in Westchester County has a very superior A Capella Choir of over one hundred voices, but is lacking in its interest in instrumental music—especially band and orchestra. For two years in succession, these schools have exchanged assembly programs to the mutual benefit of both schools.

6. SPECIAL CLASS PROJECTS

The special class project is used by a number of high schools to correlate the subject matter of one field with the subject matter in other fields and, at the same time, make the class work more interesting to all pupils concerned. For example, a junior English class in one of our Nassau County high schools turns out a project called "Holly Leaves" just before Christmas which contains poems, letters written by the students of the class, and art work. In the words of the teacher, "Pupils who take part in this project type, paint, draw, learn to work co-operatively, and to write creatively." This same idea has been worked out successfully in a number of other departments of the school program and, as a result, the annual exhibit which is scheduled in the spring of the year becomes more meaningful and, therefore, serves as a great incentive for pupil achievement.

7. SCHOLASTIC REQUIREMENTS FOR PARTICIPATION IN SCHOOL ACTIVITIES

A number of the New York State high schools have applied scholastic eligibility not only to athletic teams, but also to all extracurricular activities sponsored by the school. One upstate school reports a very interesting experiment with athletic eligibility which I should like to describe. Each five-week period, marks are collected for boys who are playing on the varsity teams. If these marks come in as failing or near failing from teachers for any one boy, he is called in for a conference with all of his teachers present, including the coach. At this conference, the teachers are given confidential information about his ability, past scholastic record, present scholastic record, interest, and home background. A discussion is held, the problem is reviewed by the teachers and pupil, and a solution is agreed upon. This solution may be that the student drop a subject, change his section, get out of athletics completely, change his daily schedule, stop odd jobs, or most anything else that in the opinion of the group would make him a better student.

8. RECOGNITION OF ACHIEVEMENT IN THE LOCAL PRESS

The Nassau County high schools sponsor, in co-operation with the *Nassau Daily Review-Star*, a "Teen-Age" page which appears weekly and which is written and edited in turn by a staff of students from each of the twenty-six high schools in the county. This page is largely devoted to news items designed to give recognition to outstanding student achievement by boys and girls enrolled in our secondary schools and serves to encourage greater effort in all school activities.

Some schools in Nassau County have a News Service Staff which undertakes, under faculty supervision, to collect and edit school news in prep-

aration for publication in all of the newspapers which circulate in the area. The purpose of all articles written is to create wholesome public relations between the school and the community and, at the same time, to give recognition to boys and girls who are doing outstanding work in school activity.

9. RECOGNITION DAY AND COMMENCEMENT AWARDS

Most high schools encourage organizations and individuals outside of the school in offering medals, plaques, certificates, and cash prizes for those students who have achieved in one or more school activities. These prizes have been most effective in encouraging student achievement in those schools that have made a special effort to keep these awards constantly before their pupils during the school year. This is done in some schools by distributing early in the school year mimeographed copies of all the awards and prizes which are available to students who achieve in some school activity.

Schools differ in the manner in which these awards are made. In some high schools in Nassau County and other parts of New York state, all prizes, plaques, certificates, *etc.*, are given out on Commencement Day. Other schools have a "Recognition Day" at a regular assembly before the close of the school year at which time most prizes and awards are given to students who earn them.

10. JUNIOR AND NATIONAL HONOR SOCIETIES

I have had the privilege of organizing six chapters of the Junior and National Honor Societies in three states, namely, Ohio, New Jersey, and New York.

The Barnesville, Ohio, chapter of the National Honor Society was organized in the fall of 1921. As a young principal serving in his first principalship, I was looking at that time for a device whereby scholastic achievement might be made popular to high-school students. In one of the educational journals, I read of the formation of a National Honor Society under the sponsorship and supervision of our National Association. A letter was written to Mr. H. V. Church of Cicero, Illinois, and in due time the Barnesville chapter of the National Honor Society was recognized by the National Committee.

Following the organization of this first chapter, other chapters were organized by me in Urbana and Zanesville, Ohio; Mountain Lakes; New Jersey; and, in 1929, the Freeport chapter of the National Honor Society was organized in the Freeport Junior-Senior High School. This was the first chapter to be organized on Long Island. Two years later, a Junior Honor Society chapter was organized in Freeport under the

sponsorship of the National Honor Society chapter. Today most high schools on Long Island have chapters of the National Honor Society.

In Freeport Junior-Senior High School, boys and girls start in the seventh grade to get ready for induction into membership in the Junior Honor Society. If they fail to qualify for membership in the Junior Honor Society, they continue their efforts with the hope that they may be honored with membership in the National Honor Society in their senior year. *Every recognition which may come to boys and girls in the Freeport Junior-Senior High School takes a second place to membership in the Junior and National Honor Societies.*

Honor Society chapters vary greatly in their policy of chapter activities. In some schools membership is purely honorary, while in other schools the chapter uses its prestige in sponsoring activities in the school to encourage achievement among the rank and file of the student body. In one Westchester County high school, the Honor Society issues cards at the close of each marking period commending pupils for excellent marks earned during that period. In other schools, Honor Society members offer their services free to pupils who are worthy but need some coaching in one or more subjects in order to bring their marks up to passing standards. In still other schools, the Honor Society prepares and publishes the honor rolls at the end of each marking period. Irrespective of the chapter policy concerning chapter activities, the very presence of Honor Society members, Junior and National, in the student body does more than all other devices combined to raise the level of achievement among those students who have average or superior ability.

Every induction ceremony is a "Red-Letter Day" for scholarship in the local high schools. It is the practice on Long Island for chapters in neighboring schools to be invited to witness induction ceremonies sponsored by the local high school. The pledge, *"I pledge myself to uphold the high ideals of this society to which I have been elected, striving in every way to make its ideals the ideals of my life and my school,"* which is taken by all Honor Society members at these ceremonies, makes a profound impression on all the students of the school.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, I should like to make three observations concerning the devices which are now being used to recognize and encourage student achievement in the high schools of New York.

1. Teachers and administrators no longer regard school activities as curricular or extracurricular in their efforts to encourage students to high achievement in all activities sponsored by the school.

2. Devices used by the best schools appear to be common to most high schools throughout New York State. Techniques vary only in relation to the pupils' needs in the individual school.
3. Much has been accomplished over the years in making high scholastic achievement popular to high-school boys and girls. In this regard the National Honor Society movement, sponsored by our National Association, has done more in the opinion of teachers and school administrators than all other techniques and devices combined.

Educational and social institutions throughout the centuries have been searching for the "four-square man." Our educational literature in recent years has given large space to educational techniques and devices that would aid in the development of the "integrated personality." The National Honor Society movement, despite all the criticism leveled at it by disappointed students and disgruntled parents, has succeeded at last in creating a pattern in the modern high school by which scholastic achievement is being blended with leadership, character, and service to develop the rounded personality which is so badly needed in the adult life of this nation and the world.

Homor L. Berry, Principal, West Side Junior High School, Little Rock, Arkansas; and *Robert L. Fleming*, Principal, South High School, Youngstown, Ohio, served as discussants.

Group IX—Pine Room

CHAIRMAN: *Marcella R. Lawler*, Division of Instruction, Department of Curriculum and Teaching, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, New York

Trends in Guidance Service for Modern Youth

LEONARD M. MILLER

UP to the close of World War II much of the emphasis in guidance services centered around the tools and techniques used in counseling procedures such as tests, use of records, occupational information, and interview techniques. With the widespread recognition since 1944 of need for counseling services, more stress has been placed on the selection and preparation of counselors. Attention has especially been centered on the need for better co-ordination of guidance and personnel services in education.

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In the field of guidance and pupil personnel¹ so many functionaries have been added during recent years without having their duties clearly defined that much confusion has resulted. Terminology formerly used to describe types of counselors and the nature of counseling service never have been adequate, and up to the present time attempts to clarify terms and functions have not been too successful. A considerable amount of "stock taking" is now in progress by a number of agencies. There is general concern that if the present confusion in terminology continues it will tend to diffuse personnel services to a degree that they will fail to meet the needs of individual pupils for whom they are intended. Recent action taken by the following organizations to correct these conditions is most encouraging:

1. A Policy Committee of the National Vocational Guidance Association has proposed some rather radical changes in policy and structure of the Association. The recommendations are published in the January, 1949, issue of *Occupations*.
2. The National Council of Guidance and Personnel Associations recently has appointed a policy committee to study and report on items such as these:

The meaning of personnel work in education; analyses of the areas of activity in the field of personnel services in education; a study of desirable qualifications for those working in guidance and personnel work in education; the advantages of a unified association of personnel workers in education.

3. In the area of counselor preparation a group of eight national agencies and organizations recently have prepared a manual which describes standards for the selection and preparation of counselors. The publication which contains their findings will be available for distribution by the latter part of April, 1949, through the office of the National Vocational Guidance Association.
4. The Commissioner of Education has recently announced the appointment of an Inter-divisional Committee on Pupil Personnel Services within the Office of Education which has been assigned as part of its duties the following:

"The Committee will concern itself with a study of the scope, purpose, and functions to be included in a comprehensive program of pupil-personnel services sponsored by the Office of Education in its several di-

1. The term "pupil personnel" rather than "student personnel" should be used to designate personnel service in education at the elementary- and secondary-school levels; *Pupil* meaning a youth of either sex under the care of an instructor or tutor; *Student* meaning a learner; *scholar*, one who attends a school, not necessarily under the care of an instructor or tutor. "*Student-personnel work*" is the term generally accepted when referring to services available for the guidance of those who continue with their educational program beyond high school.

visions. Particular attention will be paid to a delineation of the functions and purposes of the guidance aspects of such a program."

Growing Agreement in Basic Concepts.

Through efforts such as these, there is a merging agreement and understanding of what should be included in an effective guidance and pupil personnel program in the secondary schools. The early emphasis in guidance centered on a narrow concept of specialized services rendered by a few specialists for the so-called problem children. The results were measured by the number and frequency of tests administered, the number of vocational counselors, the use made of occupational and educational information and the existence of a cumulative record of some type. Now a much more comprehensive program is envisioned.

The following basic concepts constitute minimum standards for an effective guidance and pupil personnel program:

1. That individual counseling services must be provided for all pupils
2. That all professional staff members must participate in the program
3. That the services of many specialists are needed
4. That in order to utilize best the services of specialists their duties must be co-ordinated under a well-defined pupil personnel program.
5. That pupils need assistance in all life adjustment areas, health, social, economic, leisure, civic, home and family, educational, vocational
6. That cumulative records must not only be available for each pupil but that there must also be a well-defined plan to utilize the information in the records
7. That the school administrator must have a vital interest in and knowledge of what constitutes adequate pupil personnel services
8. That a continuous in-service training program for staff members responsible for pupil personnel services is essential
9. That guidance tools, such as tests, source materials in occupational and educational information, must be improved
10. That constant evaluation is necessary to determine the effectiveness of and need for improvement of pupil personnel services and their relationship to improved instructional services
11. That the professional school counselor needs professional training and supervised practice in broad areas of life adjustment
12. That the functional relationships and responsibilities of teachers and specialists must be mutually understood. Close liaison relationships between all staff members must be maintained in order to assure maximum pupil adjustment

13. That, in order to have an effective pupil-personnel program, it must be administered by a person with experience and professional training in school administration, the use of community services, and guidance techniques

Time will not permit a detailed analysis of each of the above concepts, but a few of the most pertinent of these will be given some treatment in this paper.

All Staff Members Play an Important Role.

Take, for instance, the concept that all staff members must participate in the guidance program. For too long a time it was felt that the vocational counselor was the chief functionary in the guidance program. Then there were established other hierarchies of specialized counselors such as health counselors, educational counselors, social counselors. The teacher was not supposed to play any significant role in the counseling process. The net result was that for a time, except in the elementary school, the teacher felt he had very little responsibility for the counseling program and so was delighted to refer all his pupils who needed help to the counselors.

Now the point of view has changed. The teacher who does not have a concept of individualized instruction or does not feel a keen responsibility to know the pupil under his care—his characteristics, interests, and potentialities—fails to fulfill his full duties. The teacher should not only provide anecdotal and other evidences of the pupils' traits but should also assume some counseling functions. Before he can be expected to do this he must receive some training in child study and counseling; must be given some free time for counseling and must receive some training in the use of group techniques. He frequently becomes the liaison agent between the pupil and the specialist; the pupil and his parents; or the pupil and the employer. The teacher, likewise, needs to have a rather thorough understanding of the specialized agents who can assist the individual pupil and the nature of the service each agent performs.

The Pupil-Personnel Concept.

Perhaps the most recent significant development in the guidance movement is the growing acceptance of the pupil-personnel concept in the elementary and secondary school. When the full significance of a pupil-personnel program is understood, many of the present perplexing problems related to terminology and functional and administrative relationships can be more readily adjusted. For only through a clear understanding of the pupil-personnel program will it be possible to place at the disposal of the pupil all the services he needs to assist him in all life adjustment areas. Because so little has been written in this field, the remainder of my remarks will

be centered on a description of a pupil-personnel program and some suggestions on how it can be administered.

Brief History of Student-Personnel Concept in Education.

The personnel movement concentrating on the adjustment of individual problems had its beginning in business and industry. As early as 1922 the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company and, in 1925, R. H. Macy and Company, in connection with their medical department, provided psychiatric services for employees who needed help in solving personal problems. Similar services in other businesses, industries, and government agencies followed until an all-time high demand for counseling services and specialists was reached during and following World War II.

The student-personnel program in colleges and universities is the nearest parallel to pupil-personnel services in the elementary and secondary schools. This college service had its most phenomenal growth since 1935. It grew out of a need to co-ordinate the decentralized student-personnel functions in colleges and universities and to place them under one department of one head, or commission or a committee type of administration.

Confusion at the Secondary Level.

A somewhat parallel situation to the college problem has arisen at the secondary level. So many agencies and services both in the school and community have come into existence since 1938 to serve youth of public-school age that a considerable amount of overlapping exists.

The pupil-personnel problem is made more complex at the secondary-school level, since the secondary school is somewhat in the middle as a receiving agent from the elementary school and as a sending agent into college and other forms of adult education or job placement.

The Pupil-Personnel Structure.

In order to appreciate the significance of the pupil-personnel problem and to make a comparison between personnel services offered in colleges, public schools, and through community agencies, the accompanying chart should be studied. Community agencies are listed because their services also must be co-ordinated to serve the individual's needs. These services include those available to meet students' and pupils' needs other than those which are strictly instructional.

These embrace the broad services which contribute in one form or another to the best development of the individual. In smaller communities many of the specialized services will be made available chiefly through county, state, or other auspices. By listing all the services in this manner it is possible for the school administrator to determine the extent to which his school is providing all the personnel services a pupil needs.

A Manual on Pupil-Personnel Programs Needed.

The service areas listed under each of these headings suggest the nature of functions to be performed. To augment this, a bulletin is needed which will spell out in detail the interrelationships in each area. A beginning was made in a leaflet² published in 1944 by the Office of Education which described in detail several of the service areas listed above. Since then there have been further developments which need further amplification and clarification. As an illustration the following statements are added to describe some of the detailed services under a few headings and to show how several are interrelated.

Guidance Services.

The following duties are generally construed as functions of guidance service: conferences with pupils on curricular, extracurricular and personal problems, school policies, and related problems; conferences with parents, teachers, specialists, and community agencies on the educational, health, social, and vocational problems of pupils; preparation and maintenance of pupil's cumulative records; maintenance of current and reliable information about higher education, special training, and occupational opportunities; assisting pupils with employment problems; and advising the superintendent of schools, principal, and other staff members with regard to all members relating to educational and vocational guidance service.

Group Services.

Group services may be interpreted by some as belonging to the instructional program. One form they take is found in orientation and occupational information courses. Sometimes these are offered through social studies as part of the instructional program. In many schools, however, they are taught not by a social studies instructor but by one who has special training in these areas; if not taught by such a person the course content may have been prepared by a pupil-personnel specialist. Courses of this nature become a definite part of the pupil-personnel program.

Other phases of group services have to do with the application of remedial, preventative, corrective, and therapeutic techniques. These group services in most instances must be administered by professionally trained persons.

Social Welfare and Pupil Accounting.

Considerable overlapping of services exists in these two areas. In many communities the truant officer has been replaced by the visiting teacher. In recent years the social welfare functions of the visiting teacher increasingly

² Leaflet No. 72, *Pupil-Personnel Services for all Children*, by Catherine M. Crook, 1944. Office of Education, Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C.

are being assigned to a school social worker. There is little question that visiting-teacher service should come under social welfare and should be administered by a school social worker or a teacher especially certified and trained for this purpose. Similarly, there is little doubt that all matters pertaining to attendance and administrative records should be centered under pupil accounting. However, in some schools supervision of attendance is assigned to a visiting teacher. Thus we find that in some schools the visiting teacher is primarily an attendance officer; in other schools he is a social worker; and in a third type he is an instructor for children confined to their homes; and at times he combines two or more of these.

Administrative Responsibilities.

Here, again, there is no agreement at the present time as to the title to be given to the one who directs the pupil-personnel program or what his most desirable status in relation to the administrative head should be. According to studies of programs now in operation, the following organizational structures seem to be favored. The person who heads up the program should be known as "head," "director," "supervisor," or "co-ordinator of pupil personnel;" he should have a close liaison relationship to the Superintendent of Schools. The directors of the respective service areas should constitute a personnel commission or committee who thus would have rather direct access to the Superintendent of Schools through the co-ordinator of the pupil-personnel program. In large school systems there might be an Assistant Superintendent, head of instructional services; another Assistant Superintendent, head of administrative services; and a third Assistant Superintendent, head of pupil-personnel services. A pupil-personnel director chiefly supplements the judgment of line staff workers and does not attempt to substitute for it. Centralized personnel functions properly conceived must be complementary to and never an invasion of the line supervisor's responsibility. A pupil-personnel co-ordinator or head frequently must direct and supervise rather closely some areas in pupil-personnel services until a competent director or supervisor can be secured.

Organization Charts Show a Variety of Functional Relationships.

Not many organizational charts illustrating pupil personnel staff relationships exist. Some charts which show a variety of patterns have been prepared by the Board of Education in Chicago, Illinois; Philadelphia, Pennsylvania; Newton, Massachusetts; and Rochester, New York.

Functionaries in a Pupil-personnel Program.

Every school system should organize its pupil personnel program according to a system which best serves the needs of its pupils and is in line with the number, background, and training of its staff personnel. In the

Chicago high-school personnel-structure chart, the classroom teacher is placed in the center position as the "keystone of the high-school personnel structure," who "teaches students, not subjects," and has a daily period free for counseling. Built around the classroom teacher are the following functionaries: the adjustment teacher, the placement counselor, self-appraisal and careers teacher, administrative aide in charge of attendance, psychologist from the Bureau of Child Study, reading co-ordinator, and a number of other specialists within the school system who serve in clinics to adjust and diagnose cases which involve problems related to reading, speech, behavior, sight, hearing, and other handicaps and disabilities.

Most school administrators will discover when they compare pupil-personnel services suggested in this paper with those now being offered in their local schools that a number of services are being provided by some staff members. The person who actually performs these duties cannot be identified as a specialist, perhaps, as in the Chicago plan. But the functions, nevertheless, are being performed by a teacher or a principal who has taken special courses in some specialized field such as reading, speech, testing, counseling, etc.; thus the school offers a service in lieu of a full-time specialist on the staff.

Pupil-personnel Services in a Small School.

In the small schools many of the pupil-personnel functions must be performed by the principal or classroom teacher. As indicated, often in small schools many of these services can be made available to the schools through community, county, or state auspices. In some instances, small schools have found it profitable to pool their financial resources and thus provide professional staff to serve the pupils in a number of schools. Some school districts have organized their pupil-personnel programs on a county or other geographical basis.

Future Trends.

We may expect a more general acceptance of the pupil-personnel type of organizational structure in secondary schools in place of the more narrow vocational guidance or guidance service. When reference is made to the all-inclusive range of services needed to aid pupils in solving their problems in all life adjustment areas, the term "pupil-personnel program" should be used. When the term "guidance services" is used, it may refer to an area or several areas of service within the pupil-personnel program, depending on how many services are being placed under the director of guidance. For instance, in some schools the director of guidance services will also be in charge of placement, financial aids, and some group services.

Higher Requirements for Specialists.

As the pupil progresses from the elementary to the secondary school, the problems he must solve become more and more varied and acute and seem to have deeper significance for him. More than ever before he needs the assistance of persons fully qualified to help him. Therefore, requirements for selection, preparation, and certification for those who direct and serve in the respective areas of a pupil-personnel program are being raised constantly. The school social worker is constantly challenged to meet exactly state and local certification requirements. The same is true for attendance officers, visiting teachers, school psychologists, professional counselors, placement directors, and deans. Some authorities are suggesting that definite certification standards must be met by all professional staff workers who devote two periods or more per day to general counseling or to a specialized phase of counseling. Proposals for raising the standards for the certification of directors of attendance or of pupil-accounting services are now being contemplated. We may expect to hear of even higher standards of preparation for all specialists until satisfactory minimums are attained.

In-service training programs in pupil study, in counseling, and in case-study techniques are rapidly becoming an accepted minimum requirement for all professional school staff members. This assures better understanding of and participation in individualized instruction; serves to acquaint all staff members with the specialized services available in the school and community; and thus makes possible more intelligent pupil and parent referrals and a wiser use of preventive, corrective, and remedial measures.

All must admit that we have made great strides toward improving our guidance and pupil-personnel programs. Much more needs to be done. A manual which would define the functional relationships and duties implied in the respective service areas of a pupil-personnel program should be prepared as soon as possible. The speaker will welcome criticisms of the pupil-personnel structure defined in this paper. Suggestions for improving the organizational set-up will be especially appreciated. Any organizational charts of schools where the guidance and pupil-personnel services are well co-ordinated will be most valuable. The areas in the pupil personnel field in which further research and study are needed should be determined. The most hopeful current trend toward the improvement of personnel services in education, all of you must agree, is the fact that agencies are getting together to work out a better co-ordination of services. This requires leadership from all school administrators and specially from secondary-school principals who are so closely involved and concerned with pupil-personnel problems.

STUDENT AND PUPIL-PERSONNEL SERVICES

IN

COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES

1. Admissions and Registration Service
2. Records Service
3. Social—Recreational Extra—or Co-curricular Activities
4. Financial Aid—Loans, Scholarships
5. Health Services—Mental and Physical
6. Counseling—Educational, Vocational, Personal, Religious Counselors, Junior Deans
7. Clinical Services—Psychological, Speech, Reading, Rehabilitation, Study Habits
8. Placement Services—Work Programs
9. Social Welfare—Deans
10. Testing Services
11. Group Services—Orientation, Informational, Therapeutic, Remedial, Preventive.
12. Community Agencies
13. Discipline
14. Housing and Boarding

PUBLIC SCHOOLS

1. Admissions and Registration Service
2. Pupil Accounting—Attendance and Administrative Records
3. Social—Recreational Extra—or Co-curricular Activities
4. Financial Aid—Loans, Scholarships
5. Health Services—Mental and Physical
6. Guidance Services—Counselors—Full-time and Part-time
7. Clinical Services—Psychological, Speech, Reading, Rehabilitation, Study Habits
8. Placement—Work Programs, Work Certificates
9. Social Welfare—School Social Worker, Visiting Teacher, Deans
10. Testing Services
11. Group Services—Orientation, Informational, Therapeutic, Remedial, Preventive
12. Community Agencies

AGENCIES IN THE COMMUNITY WHICH OFFER PERSONNEL SERVICES

- | | |
|---|---|
| *1. Social Work Agencies | a. Boys and girls clubs |
| *2. Family-Life Adjustment Clinics | b. Scout troops |
| *3. Department of Public Welfare | c. 4-H |
| *4. Rehabilitation Services | *12. Protective Services—Private and Public |
| *5. Child-Study Clinics | *13. Public-Health Services |
| *6. Placement Services | *14. Private Counseling Agencies |
| 7. Veterans Administration and Other Adult-Guidance Centers | a. Psychiatrists |
| *8. Red Cross | b. Psychologists |
| *9. Religious Groups | c. Vocational counselors |
| *10. Mental Hygiene Clinics | d. Personal counselors |
| *11. Youth Clubs—Privately and Publicly*Supported | *15. Personnel Directors—Business, Industry, etc. |

* Indicates agencies which serve school youth as well as adults.

What Are the Current Trends in Guidance Services for Modern Youth?

ARTHUR H. MENNES

SECONDARY schools of America today are concerned, more than ever, with basic changes in aims and purposes. Five of these concepts or trends are as follows:

1. *High schools of America must be designed to meet the needs of all youth of high-school age.* This means a change in educational philosophy. The schools that place primary emphasis on memorization of textbook content and on the development of verbal abilities cannot fully meet today's needs for all American youth. By co-operative study school administrators and faculties must study their own particular community and put into practice an educational program for all youth of the community. We have made tremendous progress during the past decade, but survey after survey still points in the direction of needed changes. Studies and bulletins prepared by our own National Association of Secondary-School Principals, The Commission on Life Adjustment Education for Youth, The American Youth Commission, The Educational Policies Commission, The New York Regents Inquiry, and the Eight-Year Study of the Progressive Education Association give guides to high schools in seeking solution for today's goal of meeting a backlog of needs still unmet by secondary schools.

A. The high school is rapidly becoming the common experience of all boys and girls between the ages of 14 and 18. A good education, therefore, is an inherent right of every boy and girl.

The Commission of Life Adjustment Education for Youth, Office of Education 1947 reports, "Most boys and girls are headed for jobs that require little training. These youth need and want an invigorated general education that relates to their everyday lives. So, as a matter of fact, do the youth who are bound for college or for the skilled trades. For tomorrow all youth—however they earn their bread—will be struggling against the social, economic, and emotional tensions that headline modern life. For some sixty per cent of our youth—those who would stand to benefit most from a general education—the traditional curriculum is far below subsistence level. All over the nation, boys and girls are protesting the unrealistic offerings of the traditional curriculum in the only way they know: they are dropping out of school at an alarming rate. Of every 100 youngsters who start to school, 45 stick long enough to be graduated from high school.

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Investigations clearly show that the great majority of drop-outs leave school because they cannot see that education as they know it is getting them anywhere."¹

There are many ways to design an education for the "neglected 60 per cent" of our high-school population, but leadership is necessary. A philosophy of education must be practiced that places youth in first consideration rather than subject matter or verbal learning.

- B. Accordingly, schools are becoming more functional for everyday living. Every study and commission report shows this trend. The philosophy of the Educational Policies Commission summarizes this trend as follows: "Schools should be dedicated to the proposition that every youth in these United States should experience a broad and balanced education which will (1) equip him to enter an occupation suited to his abilities and offering reasonable opportunity for personal growth and social usefulness; (2) prepare him to assume the full responsibilities of American citizenship; (3) give him a fair chance to exercise his right to the pursuit of happiness; (4) stimulate intellectual curiosity, engender satisfaction in intellectual achievement, and cultivate the ability to think rationally; and (5) help him to develop an appreciation of the ethical values which should undergird all life in a democratic society."²

2. *The modern high school is beginning to learn to know each pupil as an individual.* Programs are being developed which will challenge the capacities of all youth. The school, accordingly, helps the student to formulate life goals; it also views its curriculum as an agency whereby the school can assist all of its students in the attainment of such goals. In this type of school, guidance becomes integrated with all school offerings. The maturing student becomes the focal point in the entire school's program. His interests, his abilities, his needs, and his purposes must play a significant role in the selection of experiences and procedures.

3. *The entire school must realize the broad purposes of general education.* Pupils must be assisted in such areas as family living, ability to get along with people, vocational and citizenship preparation, work experience, good work habits, intelligent consumer education, creative use of leisure time, and other broad aspects of education. Courses, units and separateness of subject within the high school as a whole, and the separateness of course from course have created a parceling of school experiences. There is need today for unity in the entire educational program. We are beginning to learn to

¹ *Life Adjustment Education*. Federal Adjustment Education, Federal Security Agency. Office of Education pamphlet.

² Educational Policies Commission on *Education for All Women Youth*, p. 21. Washington: Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators. 1944.

combine, to relate, to assemble, to unify school offerings. We are concerned with the "behavior" demanded of all free men as individuals and as members of groups in a free society. We are less concerned with knowledge of content than with behavior as the end product of the teaching-learning situation. Analysis of the development of programs of general education in secondary schools to date through the exploration of fused courses, core courses, organization of large units of instruction, experience curriculum, and the like, reveals a tendency to seek something in addition to subject matter as a basis for planning the achievement of synthesis in the curriculum. This tendency should and will gain more and more vitality. The Harvard College Committee on General Education in a Free Society places emphasis upon four "characteristics"—thinking, communication, making relevant judgments, and discrimination of values. In keeping with the idea of general education, the Educational Policies Commission planned a program of instruction for secondary schools organized in four areas—personal interests, vocational preparation, common learnings (social living), and health. The entire school program and its services must work together.

4. *Classroom teachers must assume responsibility for many areas of guidance.* Ruth Strang has stated this problem in these words:

"Wherever and whenever teachers have been concerned with helping each individual to realize his potentialities, they have exemplified the *personal* point of view and rendered guidance services. Personnel work, in some sort of spiritual way, must pervade the entire school. It ought to be like fresh air—so natural and pervasive a part of our total living that we scarcely ever bother even to talk about it. Sometime the words "guidance" and "personnel work" may drop out of education entirely."³

As classroom teachers become guidance-minded and practice the newer concept of learning and of pupil growth, they become better teachers of their own subjects. The opportunities of the subject-matter teachers to do guidance work is tremendous. They help youth form correct attitudes, they help youth in personal adjustments, they assist youth in educational and vocational choices. The whole program for the teacher, is built around the need for helping pupils solve their problems. Teachers are made aware of the students' needs, learn to recognize pupils who need help, and discover how to get the help students need. Teachers in meeting their pupils must operate on the theory that every pupil needs help in striving for maximum personal development in accordance with intelligently developed personal plans. The instructional program in the classroom must stress self development. Francis Rummell, of the Office of Education, Washington, D. C.,

³ Strang, Ruth. *The Role of the Teacher in Personnel Work*, p. 29. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1946 (revised).

visited teachers in every state to search out examples of good teaching. In his report, "What Are Good Teachers Like?" he makes the following observations: "All the teachers I visited shared to a remarkable degree one specific quality. Stated very simply, it is artistry in human relations. The classroom is a gold mine for observing and practicing the principles of human relations. They are zealously democratic in their methods if we consider that true democracy is respect for the individual. Finally, they are humanitarian or they would not care particularly about children's needs. Consequently, they do not talk about teaching 'methods.' Instead they talk in human terms of good will, of stumbling personalities, of creating an atmosphere of dignity for the child. They talk about understanding the child and about the urgency of teaching him, by example and precept, the principles of democratic living. And they talk about the infinite responsibility of dealing with precious raw material that changes its size and shape, and even its voice, right before their eyes. They are poignantly aware that under their influence, this raw material may also change its very destiny."⁴ From the above description of "good teachers" we can say that they play an important role in the guidance and total growth pattern of high-school youth. We cannot separate guidance from "good teaching." High-school teachers will find motivation low and learning difficult if they view young people as "dumb brats," who never care to learn history or English, and who usually make trouble in the class. Guidance for these teachers is the work for the specialist. Their main concern is verbal learning and the passing of examinations by students in their courses.

5. Subject areas are concerned with total pupil growth and development.

At every convention and in written reports, subject specialists discuss the role of general education in their particular subject.

Stanley Diamond of the National Council for the Social Studies at a recent Chicago convention stated: "It is no accident that many social studies teachers give increased time to the professional study of child growth and development. As personal behavior becomes more complex under the strains of modern life and more difficult to understand, we seek to learn more from the psychiatrist, and psychologist, and the social worker. We have realized that, unless we can help children to adjust emotionally to the conditions of present-day life, they cannot learn successfully the subject matter which we teach."⁵

The theme of the 1948 convention of the National Council of Teachers of English, held in Chicago was "English for Maturity." It emphasized the

⁴ "What Are Good Teachers Like?" *School Life*, Washington 25, D. C.: Federal Security Agency, Office of Education, June, 1948.

⁵ *Social Education*, December 1948, page 10. Washington, D. C.: National Council for the Social Studies.

fact that the goal toward which all our teaching should be directed is the full development of each student.

"The key to education is growth. It is in the nature of children and adolescents to grow, and the task of the teacher is to guide their growth and encourage it. But though healthy adolescents will grow, they will not necessarily grow into civilized maturity. They need wise teachers who, while understanding and enjoying their students in their present stage of restless immaturity, nevertheless have clearly in mind the goal of true maturity and are primarily concerned with helping their students to grow into it. Students need teachers who can see the man in the boy, the woman in the girl."⁶

All subject-field specialists summarize their point of view by being guidance minded and devoting more effort toward pupil growth than toward functional learning. Guidance is becoming more intimately related to the educational process of all subject areas. The process of learning to know pupils and planning purposeful learning experiences for them is becoming the object of all subject fields.

CURRENT TRENDS IN GUIDANCE SERVICES

We have listed current trends and basic changes in the aims and purposes of secondary education. Because of the need of brevity and because of a previous presentation on the same subject, I will merely list trends in current guidance services for the expanded role of secondary education. An excellent report and self-study guide has been prepared by the North-Central Association, Subcommittee on Guidance. I shall summarize some of their findings.⁷

1. All trends show need for guidance services. Guidance services are rapidly emerging as essential parts of all education.
2. Guidance and counseling programs are now regarded as including all services or activities. Attempts to distinguish between vocational guidance, *et cetera*, are rapidly passing. More attention is being concentrated on the policy of helping pupils with their problems and plans.
3. Teachers play an important role in guidance services. Teachers as teachers render many guidance services to pupils.
4. All members of the staff should participate in the guidance program.
5. Counseling is becoming the "heart" of the guidance program. If individuals are unique and different, their characteristics are so

⁶ Pollock, Thomas, "How Civilized Are Your Students?" Teacher's Service Bulletin in English. The Macmillan Co., Nov., 1948.

⁷ The North Central Association Quarterly, October, 1947, pages 210-247.

varied that they must be helped in an individual relationship. Each person must be helped to match his characteristics with his environment and his future opportunities, although much information and insight can be developed in group situations. The final decisions can be determined only through individual conferences. It is necessary therefore:

- a. That the counseling be carried on by competent people.
 - b. That facilities of time, space, and materials be provided.
 - c. That all staff members consider their responsibility to make their counseling effective.
 - d. That the school have counselors. Counselors should not be appointed to relieve teachers of normal guidance responsibilities. Rather, they should attempt to supplement the work of the teachers and attempt to raise the level of teachers' effectiveness. A modern educational program requires, therefore, some staff members who can make their greatest contribution through counseling with pupils. This becomes their assigned responsibility.
6. There is a growing importance of research as a function of a guidance program. Studies should be made of the needs and characteristics of the pupils, of their plans for the future, of the experience patterns of pupils leaving the school, and many other such areas of study. This research should be funneled back to the entire staff so that they may consider methods of improving the school's services.
 7. There is a growing importance of the part the community plays in guidance services. Unless parents are active participants and unless community agencies make their contributions, the whole program will be sterile.
 8. Placement and follow-up services are becoming important services of guidance programs. An educational experience is not complete until individuals have been helped into their next experience. The school is also concerned with a follow-up of former pupils. A follow-up program can provide an excellent measure for the effectiveness of the school's guidance program.
 9. Pertinent pupil data must be available for all students. Identifying data are, of course, a necessary part of the information essential for guidance services. Data must reveal all types of information including physical data, scholastic ability, evidences of aptitudes other than scholastic, vocational and other interests, personality and social growth, family data, pupil background data, educational and voca-

tional plans, activities, and work experiences. Beyond these minimum essentials additional information is desirable; such as, school subject likes and dislikes, other likes and dislikes, travel experience, unusual environmental factors, unusual experiences, and any other which exerts an influence upon present progress and future plans.

10. Guidance services should affect the administration of the school. Schools should be administered for the benefit of the pupils and not for the convenience of the administrator. After the needs of the pupils have been met, the needs of the instructional staff should be given first consideration. The guidance program can render much service, too, in the curricular development of the school. No other service has as many data regarding each individual pupil. The guidance services must be summarized and findings presented to the administrative staff for consideration in curriculum development. Principals cannot escape the responsibility for giving leadership to the total guidance program of the school. The principal is the most important single factor in determining how good a school will be. He is the bottleneck or the spark plug who on the one hand impedes progress or on the other hand stimulates a staff to develop a high-quality school.

All youth of high-school age must be given a functional high-school education that gives first consideration to personal growth and development.

The basic elements of a guidance program are, in reality, the types of services which it provides. These could be summarized as services to pupils individually or in groups, help for the instructional staff, services to the administration, and outgrowths of guidance in research and practice.

The task of guidance services is to facilitate the adjustment of the school to the pupil and the adjustment of the pupil to the school and to life. A description of goals to be sought must be meaningful to all concerned.

SUMMARY

There must be sound principles of learning in all guidance services.

Secondary schools more than ever are obligated to appraise the growth and development of their students in the objectives which they hold desirable. Guidance services are essential in all aspects of a school environment.

Lt. Comdr. R. B. Lowe discussed the Navy's recruiting policy as it applied to the secondary schools and pointed out that the Navy wanted young men to "stay in school, graduate, and go on to college if they can." He presented the *United States Navy Occupational Handbook*, which is being distributed to the schools and colleges of the country along with sets of *Vocational Information Briefs*. This material provides a complete factual job anal-

ysis of the vast occupational structure of the Navy and gives counselors and teachers the tools to enable them to relay information to their students. He explained how it may be used in the classroom as supplementary material to occupations texts, and brought out the viewpoint that "Good Recruiting is Good Guidance." The January, 1949, (pages 127-128) issue of *The Bulletin* of the NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS contains a review of this material and tells how it may be obtained.

Harold A. Ferguson, Principal, Montclair High School, Montclair, New Jersey; and *Wayne F. McIntire*, Director, Division of Secondary Education, Contra Costa County Schools, Martinez, California, served as discussants.

Group X—Parlor M

CHAIRMAN: *Chester W. Holmes*, Superintendent of Schools, Malden, Massachusetts

How Satisfactory Are Current Policies and Practices for College Admission?

LESTER W. NELSON

HOW satisfactory are current policies and practices for college admission? This question is based on two assumptions: *first*, the assumption that there exists in American education today a body of commonly accepted principles against which college admission policies and practices may be appraised; *second*, the assumption that there exists a common core of policy and practice among our colleges. Neither of these assumptions is justified by the facts. Indeed, the most significant observation to be made about college admission policies and practices is their lack of uniformity. Furthermore, despite the coalescing pressures among secondary schools to secure greater uniformity in this field, the current trend continues to be in the direction of increasing diversity. This proliferation in admission procedures and techniques, much of it born of harsh necessity caused by numbers, has resulted in confusion, misunderstanding, and uncertainty. It has tended, too, to place untoward emphasis on strategy and tactics of applicants, rather than honest expression of plan and purpose. In no small measure, it has contributed directly to the fantastic applicant inflation.

LOCAL INITIATIVE THE MAINSTAY OF AMERICAN EDUCATION

None of us, I think, would argue that American education would better serve the needs of our society by adopting a standardized curriculum, method of teaching, or administration. The right, if not the obligation,

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of our schools and colleges to experiment, to be different, is as inalienable in a free society as the rights of the individual. If we believe in the preservation of the American system of free enterprise, we must believe in the right of education to offer as wide a range of program in education as is consistent with the basic principles of our democratic heritage. As we defend the right of individuals to be different, we must equally defend the right of our schools and colleges to be different. It is these differences which will best serve to protect equality of opportunity for the individual within the larger society. If we insist on uniformity of educational program, we abandon *equality* of opportunity for the individual and substitute *identity* of opportunity. The vigor and significance of our system of education is not based on identity of program and procedure but on the existence of differences. This right to be different must be preserved if we would preserve the creative vitality of our educational institutions, upon which the whole structure of education in a democratic society must rest. If, then, we believe that our colleges and universities must preserve the right to be different, we must likewise defend their right to differ among themselves as to their policies and practices in selecting students. To deny the one is to attack the other; the right and the practice are inseparable.

Here, then, is the great dilemma confronting us. How can college admissions policies and practices be improved in the interest of greater clarity of understanding and straightforward honesty by applicants while, at the same time, preserving the right of the colleges to differ widely in their respective policies and practices? While no easy answer can be offered to this question, the speaker ventures to suggest five things which, in his judgment, could be done. No claim is made to originality in these suggestions. If they possess virtue, and the speaker believes they do, such virtue lies in the fact that they are consistent with the right of free choice by the college and the applicant; that they represent changes in procedure rather than basic policy; that they are feasible.

FRANK STATEMENTS OF ADMISSIONS REQUIREMENTS

First, the colleges should prepare and distribute to schools and candidates frank, clear, and comprehensive statements of their admissions policies, requirements, and procedures. It may be argued that this is difficult or impossible; that it would tend to make admissions procedures more rigid; that, instead of improving understanding, it would provoke increased public criticism. However, if we would reduce the undesirable emphasis on strategy by candidates, there must be an equal willingness on the part of the colleges, themselves, to reduce their own strategical approach to selection of candidates. This is a two-way street and, in my judgment, the colleges too frequently wish to post one-way traffic signs along it. Such

statements should be intended to reveal pertinent information rather than conceal it.

Recent efforts in this direction by some colleges reflect great credit on their thoughtful approach to the problem and, one might add, represent considerable courage, too. One may quarrel with the specific procedures which are outlined in such statements but, at least, one has a certain knowledge about them.

ADOPT UNIFORM TRANSCRIPT FORM

Second, the adoption of a uniform transcript form for submission of academic records and test data by the schools and candidates would tremendously simplify the task of preparing and forwarding such data and would, correspondingly, release much time and energy which might better be devoted to subjective appraisals and personal recommendations. Considerable progress has been made in this direction, but much more needs to be made. Standardization of this form would in no way inhibit the provision of such information to meet the needs of all colleges. On the other hand, the speaker does not believe that similar standardization of the *personal recommendation* or *application* forms is either desirable or feasible. These are areas in which the varying interests of the colleges in selection of students are most likely to differ. Uniformity of procedures here would not appear to serve any useful purpose.

EARLIER TENTATIVE ACCEPTANCE

Third, it has long been the speaker's belief that the colleges could and should grant tentative acceptance to many candidates at an earlier date than is commonly the case. Certainly, there would seem to be no overriding reason why a candidate, whose qualifications for admission by the end of the junior year of secondary school are clear, should not be given a tentative notification of acceptance, subject of course, to certain necessary understandings clearly stated. All of us have numerous students in our junior classes about whom there is no real question of qualification for admission to college. Under existing circumstances, however, these candidates feel that the protection of their individual interest requires the insurance of supplementary applications. In these cases, such supplementary applications contribute to the inflationary spiral that is so difficult to control and, in addition, they increase the attrition factor against which the college admissions officers have annually to contend. Few, if any, changes in current, common practice would prove more salutary in stemming application inflation than the willingness of colleges to grant such tentative acceptances. I know there are many arguments raised by the colleges against such a procedure. Most of us, probably, have heard them all. To the speaker, however, they are not convincing. The advantages of reduced duplication of applications

by candidates, of released time and energy of guidance personnel thus made available to students having the greatest need of it, greatly reduced emphasis on application strategy, reduced pressure on the so-called "college choice" factor, increased stability for students thus accepted by reason of reduced emotional pressures—these advantages greatly outweigh the arguments that such early acceptances would result in recession in academic achievement, increased uncertainty for those not given early acceptances, increased pressures by parents and candidates on schools and college admissions officers.

To be sure, if such a program were to obtain general acceptance by the colleges, the responsibility of the secondary schools for thorough guidance and complete co-operation with the colleges would be apparent. This, however, is a responsibility of the secondary schools in any event, and it could scarcely be increased in degree or intensified in quality by any such change in procedure.

ABOLISH SUCCESSIVE-HURDLE APPROACH

Fourth, the "successive hurdle" approach to college admissions should be either entirely abandoned or substantially modified. To a major degree, this practice represents the effect on selective processes of numbers of candidates vastly in excess of college facilities to accommodate them. The practice may be illustrated by the following hypothetical example. College *A* has accommodations for 500 entering freshmen and receives 3,000 applications. The task of selecting the 500 "best qualified" candidates from among the 3,000 who apply is an extremely difficult one. Trained personnel may be lacking; facilities may be limited; time in which to process each application thoroughly may not be adequate. In desperation, certain criteria are adopted, possibly as emergency measures. These criteria are applied in successive steps. *Step 1* weeds out the 1,000 applicants who are not in the upper half of their secondary-school classes; *Step 2* eliminates from among the remaining 2,000 those who do not state College *A* to be their single first choice, thus reducing the group to 1,500. *Step 3* rejects another 500 who rank below the 50th percentile on the verbal section of the College Board Scholastic Aptitude Test; *Step 4*, involving the remaining 1,000 applicants, is the one in which thorough-going consideration is given to each candidate according to whatever further criteria may be invoked to suit the specific purposes of the college. This group of "final" candidates have three qualifications in common—they rank in the upper half of their graduating classes; they stand in the upper half of the total group on the basis of the College Board Scholastic Aptitude Test; they *profess* to have no first choice of college other than College *A*. Please note that, in such a procedure, two thirds of the applications have been set aside or rejected on the basis of criteria which take no account of school endorsement, record of activities,

profile of personal growth, and numerous other factors which are inherently important in selection. In such a process, the real approach to selection is the negative one of rejection. If such a procedure of "successive hurdles" is to be followed by an institution in selecting students, is it not reasonable to say that the college should be frank enough to state this in its outline of admissions policy and procedure? Is it fair to the secondary school to require that it invest the time and energy requisite for honest completion of candidate qualifications as called for by the application forms, unless the data thus laboriously prepared and the judgments so carefully stated are going to constitute an important part of the criteria on which the candidate will be judged?

This presentation of a hypothetical situation is not intended as a blanket criticism of college admissions procedures. Quite possibly, no such actual procedure as I have outlined could be found to exist. Such exaggeration as may be involved is intended merely to illustrate the point. Few of us will disagree, however, on the apparent existence of some form of "successive hurdling" procedures in many colleges to which our graduates have applied for admission.

The speaker would argue that such practices are not in the best interests of the colleges because they exclude from admission many of the most promising candidates; that they are not fair to the secondary schools since they call for preparation and presentation of data and judgments which are not used; that they are prejudicial to candidates who have the right to expect full consideration of their complete records as submitted. I would not deny the right of the college to follow such a procedure if it wishes, provided that it frankly states that it does so.

GREATER ATTENTION TO PERSONAL QUALIFICATIONS

Fifth, greater attention needs to be given to the personal qualifications of candidates in relation to qualifications based on pure academic aptitude and scholastic achievement. Our tools and techniques for measurement and accurate reporting of aptitude and achievement in the field of academic proficiency seem to be better developed than our skills in identifying and appraising personality and character traits. It is no reflection on the ability or integrity of college admissions officers that this is so. It is an interesting commentary on our secondary schools that we profess such intense concern about education of youth for effective citizenship, but give so little attention to it in the appraisal of our college candidates.

It should be the accepted responsibility of every secondary school, in presenting its candidates to college admissions officers, to make every effort to evaluate the personal qualifications of the individual. If our colleges, in training youth for effective leadership in our free society, are to do the job which our times demand, the secondary schools must recognize the

tremendous responsibility which is theirs for identifying these qualities among the many who seek a college education. If our cherished traditions and practices of human freedom and equal opportunity for all are to be kept strong, the training of intellectual and the development of specific skills must be buttressed in our schools and colleges by an equal concern for the social attitudes and spiritual resources of those whom we teach. College admissions policies and practices must reflect this concern. We, in the secondary schools, hold the golden apple of opportunity in our hands for emphasizing this concern through the methods we employ in presenting our candidates to the colleges.

SUMMARY

We confront a dilemma in attempting an appraisal of current policies and practices for college admission, caused by our desire for greater uniformity in such procedures, on the one hand, and our belief that our colleges and universities must be left free to differ materially in their respective procedures, on the other hand. Complete reconciliation of this apparent conflict is certainly difficult and probably impossible to attain. The speaker believes that significant contributions could be made in this direction if:

1. The colleges, *generally*, would prepare and distribute clearer, franker, fuller statements of their admissions requirements, policies, and procedures.
2. The colleges could agree on the adoption of a uniform transcript form for the presentation of academic data.
3. The colleges would grant tentative acceptances to well-qualified candidates at an earlier date, as early as the end of the junior year, perhaps.
4. The "successive hurdle" approach to college admissions were eliminated.
5. Greater attention could be given to identification and appraisal of personal qualifications of candidates by the secondary schools, and greater weight given to these qualifications by colleges in selecting their students.

How Satisfactory Are Current Policies and Practices for College Admissions?

WILLIAM K. SELDEN

HOW satisfactory are current policies and practices for college admission?" That question is one which may well be asked at any time. It is of concern not only to college faculties and school administrators; it is of grave importance also to our society.

Who are those to carry on our culture in future generations? Who are to be the leaders in government, labor, business, science, religion, the

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arts, and professions? Most of them will be drawn from those whom we are admitting to colleges.

A college degree has become so important that today it is the first requisite for many jobs, whether in government or business. In fact, the degree is so important that all too frequently no attention is paid to the type of institution from which the degree was obtained, or the quality, or type of study performed. We may well run the danger of making a fetish of the Bachelor's degree. As a result, the question of who is entering college is a fundamental problem for consideration.

We frequently hear criticisms of college admission policies and practices. The professor may say that not a sufficient number of his students is adequately prepared. The alumnus may claim that not enough attention is paid to football talent. The employment manager looking for college graduates may state that personal qualities are ignored. Those who represent minority groups may insist that discrimination controls college admissions. The college business manager may think there are not enough students who are able to pay their tuition bills. A high-school principal may consider that the academic requirements are too rigid.

COLLEGES INFLUENCED BY SOCIETY

No matter what the criticisms may be, the point which I wish to make, and which I think is too often forgotten, is that our colleges, and in turn our college admissions, are a reflection and a manifestation of the society in which they exist. That fact is just as true today as it was two hundred years ago.

At a time when college enrollment was largely limited to those who were entering politics or one of the professions and when classical languages served as the keystone of the curriculum, it was not surprising that a typical colonial college based admission upon a knowledge of Greek and Latin. "The president and tutors were to examine all candidates and reject those who could not 'render Virgil and Tully's orations into English' and 'turn English into true and grammatical Latin' and translate 'any part of the four Evangelists' from Greek into Latin or English. Nothing whatsoever was said about mathematics, English, or the sciences." It was not until 1760 that a candidate was required to understand even the principles "of vulgar arithmetic."

Lest we think that education in those days was a paragon of virtue, we might remember that society then permitted money from rum and slaves to help start one well-known institution and lotteries to support by stage coach or horseback from one community to another in search of financial support for their colleges. Today they employ other means of transportation.

Students, then as now, were good, bad, or indifferent. There were periods of increasing college enrollments, followed by times when the forces of lessening supply and demand were felt. In the 1840's, there must have been a decrease in the number of qualified candidates. The following communication was sent in May, 1844, by a committee of professors of classical languages to the presidents of the several New England colleges: "All the colleges, at this time, receive students with much less than the required amount of preparation; in some cases even less than half the usual preparatory courses is admitted as sufficient, while in others nearly the whole is required."

Are these basic conditions much different from those we have experienced in our lifetimes? Have we not seen some students entering college whose qualifications might have been questioned by a contemporary committee of professors, whether of Latin, chemistry, or English?

A BASIC PHILOSOPHY OF OUR DEMOCRACY

A basic philosophy of our democracy has been that the lowliest in society might conceivably rise to the top. The child born in a log cabin might some day be president. Some have been. Theoretically, every one is to be given his chance, especially in education. Today, without an education, the individual's future, whether economically or socially, may be restricted. Admission to our public colleges is based upon this same principle. The student is given his chance to enter college, to try it, to change his mind, and even to fail if he wishes. But our policy has been—not to deny him that chance.

Developments in recent years have merely accentuated this policy. College enrollments in 1900 were about 237,000; by 1920, they were approximately 597,000. This year, through the impetus of government aid to veterans, college enrollments are close to two and one-half million students. Strong movements are now in force to establish government financial aid, not only for those interested in the sciences, but also for many others too impecunious to attend an institution of higher learning without a scholarship. Old age retirement, unemployment compensation, public health, maternity payments are all part of the same picture—to raise the minimum scale for all of our society.

A college education no longer is considered to be appropriate merely for those entering politics or one of the professions, as was the situation in colonial times. For a larger segment of our society, it is now considered essential, whether for vocational, social, or, in all too few cases, for cultural reasons. And society is demanding it for them.

As we increase the number of colleges as well as the number of students entering colleges and, as we increase the multiplicity of academic pro-

grams, we find students enrolling in institutions for diversity of reasons and with a corresponding spread in mental ability and cultural background. The influence on college admissions is obvious. For example, the old subject-matter requirements for admission to college no longer provide the same validity. In addition, our college curricula seem to be like the arms of a giant octopus spreading its tentacles toward everything within its reach. We must recognize that educating a greatly increased percentage of our population will likely dilute, at least for a time, the quality of their intellectual accomplishments.

SOCIAL ELEMENT IN EDUCATION

No wonder that a man like Abraham Flexner writes somewhat critically of higher education in this country: "Backward as our student body is in respect of intellectual maturity, it is in general, socially, a wholesome group of fine boys and girls, who mature quickly in the actual struggles of life. They know less than their European contemporaries, though they are two years older; their cultural interests are so limited as to be merely accidental; but they are 'good fellows' and such they usually remain. Perhaps European education has overstressed the intellectual element; American education throughout overstresses the social element."

If American education overstresses the social element, as it very likely may do, it does so because our society has frequently been more concerned with the less intellectual sides of life. Dorothy Lamour, Mae West, and Charlie McCarthy have a wider appeal than anyone in art, literature, or music. A learned trustee of one of our most influential universities was surprised by such a large audience when he spoke recently at a pre-Community Fund meeting; Frank Sinatra was to follow him on the program.

As I said, we often hear criticisms of college admission policies and practices. We hear derogatory remarks about the admission of athletes whose endowments have frequently been more physical than mental. And yet, the public clamors for bigger spectacles and winning college football teams. The colleges are condemned for denying admission to a Negro or a Jew. At the same time, religious and racial intolerance, in fact even hatred, exists in many sections of the country.

COLLEGES SHOULD EXERT INFLUENCES ON SOCIETY

Even though our colleges and their admission policies and practices may be influenced by society, nevertheless, they in turn should be exerting leadership on society. Although caught in the throes of public acclaim for athletic prowess, the colleges should emphasize the fact that the welfare of any athlete and the integrity of every institution are more important to society than any winning team. Colleges should also aim to inculcate in their students a sense of Christian ethics, and morality, and wholesome tolerance, and consideration of others, no matter what race or creed.

Our college enrollments have swollen with the end of the War. But the peak, for at least a decade, is now past. We are entering a period of decreasing enrollments. The number of veterans currently seeking admission to colleges is a negligible factor. The lowered birthrate of the depression '30's is felt in high-school populations. The cost of living is squeezing the family budget. And many colleges, despite protestations to the contrary, do not wish the size of their student bodies to be decreased much below that which in recent years they have grown to think is normal. Our educational institutions cannot operate at a financial loss for any length of time any more than can business or government.

The competition among the colleges for students, which is bound to develop during the next several years, will cause some admissions officers to talk less about the preservation of their academic standards and to think more of the maintenance of their enrollments. Of approximately one hundred of the more prominent colleges in the country, three-fifths of them stated recently that they had fewer applications on file this year than at the same time last year. College admissions are influenced by supply and demand just as rapidly as is the price of wheat; perhaps more so. There is no parity support—at least yet—in college education.

COLLEGE INFLUENCES SHOULD BE BENEFICIAL

As we enter this period of decreasing college enrollments, the colleges must exert leadership through their admission policies and practices which will be beneficial to society. We must be straightforward and honest and not delude students with statements about our individual colleges, statements which are open to serious question. The conditions of college admission of the early '30's are so vividly in my mind that I would not wish the colleges to return to some of the practices used in recruiting students, practices of which we should then have been ashamed.

While college admission policies and practices are influenced most profoundly by society and accepted social thought, there are a few ways in which improvements could be made so that those best qualified may be included in our college enrollments.

One. The admissions officer would do well to consider high-school rank, not alone, but only in connection with the courses the student has studied and in relation to the quality of the work done in the school from which he is graduated. I insist that a good school is the one that does best the job which it is expected to do, and that job may not necessarily be sending students to college. Nevertheless, class rank is significant for college admission in relation to the proportion from the school who attend college.

Two. We should guard against a too ready reliance on scores received in aptitude, achievement, and vocational tests. Such examinations

given on a national scale *may* not adequately test the foreign-born or the children of foreign-born parents. They *may* be unfair to the boy or girl of a rural area when the tests include questions more pertinent to urban life. At the same time, these tests, such as the General Educational Development tests, have encouraged us to realize that it is possible for some students to meet the academic requirements for admission even though they may not have had formal instruction in all courses prescribed for admission.

The one field in which tests would be most desirable, although they have never been developed, is the measurement of ambition, perseverance, the will to learn, to work, and to succeed. What important factors these are, and how hard to evaluate!

Three. It is in the area of personal evaluation that we need more information than school principals and counselors are usually providing. Most students need more counseling and guidance than schools are generally able to provide. And education needs better counselors.

Many students, without guidance, develop interests in colleges which may not be suited to them. The colleges in turn are partially to blame for this. We all try to attract the best students. There should be some colleges which possess the strength of their convictions to state that they are institutions qualified to educate the average student.

And Four. Most important of all—a large number of students, who would more easily qualify academically for college than many who now attend, never develop an interest in any college. Their geographical location, their cultural background, and their financial resources serve as handicaps for their educational, and in turn their vocational, social, and cultural advancement. If we are to preserve in our society that fluidity, which since frontier days has been a basis of our culture, we must recognize nationally the need of support, financial and otherwise, for the elementary and secondary schools in all parts of the country. College admissions begin before the senior year of high school. In addition, we must recognize that increased costs of a college education are debarring more qualified students from enrolling in institutions of higher learning than is consistent with the social philosophy of this country.

The recent report of the President's Commission on Higher Education gave much thought to this problem. Some of us think their conclusions were too grandiose and were reached with too little regard for our economic resources.

As I have said, colleges and college admissions are influenced by society. But colleges in turn should be exerting leadership on society. It is the responsibility of educators to focus public attention on this problem.

It has been said, "Good education is always ahead of public opinion and always behind the needs of the times." To recognize the needs of the times requires vision. You and I must develop vision. According to the Proverbs, "When there is no vision, the people perish."

Franklyn L. Blume, Principal, Monroe High School, St. Paul, Minnesota; and *George H. Gilbert*, Principal, Lower Merion Senior High School, Ardmore, Pennsylvania, served as discussants.

Group XI—Parlor G

CHAIRMAN: *A. O. Jenkins*, Principal, Geneseo Central School, Geneseo, New York

How Can We Meet the Administrative Problems of the Small High School?

WALTER H. GAUMNITZ

THE problem chosen is a very broad one and could well become the basis for a textbook, especially if any effort were made to consider first the problems which small high schools have in common with all high schools and then to identify and analyze those which are peculiar to the small high school. I propose to approach the subject somewhat differently. The question I shall undertake to discuss is: What can be done to center more attention upon the administrative problems of the small high school and to create a climate favorable to dealing effectively with such problems?

I suppose we cannot in this discussion avoid giving some attention to the question of "What is a small high school?" The answer could be flip-pantly given that "A small high school is one that is not large" or we could moralize and say "It is small when it conceives of itself and its services as small." Obviously, high schools of various sizes blend gradually into each other as concerns all the significant factors that relate to such administrative problems as financing, organization, staffing, program and schedule making, buildings and equipment, and other facilities. I think, however, for the sake of focusing our attention somewhat more sharply, we can agree on some of the following aspects of the small high school: The small high schools for the most part are located in rural areas and, therefore, primarily they serve farm and village youth and communities. The number of pupils enrolled is small, involving either the problem of providing a very limited program of instruction when such a school operates along traditional lines

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or projecting radical departures in educational objectives, in organization, in scheduling, and in instructional procedures and processes.

I suppose we can readily agree that the 2,429 or 20 per cent of all 4-year high schools which enroll fewer than 50 pupils each are small. No doubt there would also be wide agreement that the 32 per cent or 3,797 more enrolling between 50 and 100 pupils are likewise small. If we so agree then we will have well over half of the schools offering 4 years of work as the basic field for our consideration. Even when we consider separately those schools which have sought to enlarge their student bodies through the addition of the 7th and 8th grades into a single school for administrative purposes, 1 in 5 still enrolls fewer than 100 pupils. Obviously, if we include in this statistical size study those high schools which enroll between 100 and 200 pupils, we add materially to both types of schools. The 4-year high schools falling into this enlarged category then rise to 76.5 per cent and the junior-senior high schools, to 55.4 per cent.

The teaching staffs of these schools are for the most part not only small in numbers but they are composed disproportionately of beginners in the profession who are overloaded both in the number of subjects they must teach and in other duties they must perform for which they have too often had little or no training. The principal, for the most part, is equally new to the game and if possible, still more overloaded and untrained for the large variety of complex jobs with which he must deal. While it is a little hard to believe that it is true, recent statistical studies show that even as late as 1946 there were 30 high schools attempting to give the full 4 years of instruction with but a single teacher; 567 more were attempting to do so with 2 teachers. Indeed, the model 4-year high school of the United States employs only 5 or 6 teachers; 56.5 per cent of all such 4-year schools employ a staff of 6 or fewer. A small staff is, therefore, an obvious characteristic of the small high school.

I think you would probably agree when I say that a small high school with a given enrollment and staff may be much larger in terms of the services it renders in one community and under one principal than one of equal size in another community and under another principal. I mean to say that, when such a school is maintained and administered as part of a larger unit of school administration from which it can draw administrative as well as instructional services, it is quite different from one operating completely on its own in an independent district. Moreover, when two or more schools co-operate in developing a joint or co-ordinated program of educational services, the problems entailed and the means and ways of finding solutions to them are very different both in number and in nature. Perhaps the above is enough to indicate how complex the whole subject is and at the same time to give us at least a few statistical bearings as together we consider the subject before us.

RECOGNITION OF PROBLEMS OF SMALL HIGH SCHOOL A SPRINGBOARD

Turning our attention now to what can and, in my opinion, should be done to center more attention upon the administrative problems of these schools to create a more favorable climate for doing something about them, I wish to deal with the subject in terms of where the responsibility lies for doing fairly specific things. I believe that not a great deal of progress can be made either in recognizing the problems peculiar to the small high school or in doing something about them unless and until these problems are viewed in the large rather than on purely local, individual school basis. This means that the state departments of education generally need to assume a great deal more responsibility for their small high schools than has been done in the past. I wish to suggest some rather definite ways of either eliminating the problems which are peculiar to the small high school or of isolating and attacking them. I believe for one thing that every state will need to have special committees, workshops, study projects, etc., which are concerned with the problem of bringing the principals of the small high schools together under circumstances calculated to help them discuss their problems, project well considered experiments, and work out agreements for co-operation with the larger schools, with accrediting associations, and with each other. I have a feeling that, if the principals of small high schools could more frequently get together to exchange ideas about how they have dealt with certain problems, to work out manuals and other guides, and to study problems common to their schools, they could do a very great deal to understand not only the nature of their problems and the causes behind them but also the practical ways and means through which they may be solved.

SPECIAL SERVICES OF STATE DEPARTMENTS OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION

Secondly, I suggest that state departments of education do very much more than inspect and accredit the small high schools with the general disposition of leaving those which do not pass muster to fend for themselves. Quite the opposite approach is needed. Special services need to be devised to help those high schools which have not been able to meet the various criteria commonly set down for accredited high schools. The process of identifying and dealing with the administrative problems needs to be one of study, co-ordination, and helpful co-operation rather than the putting of such schools on or off accredited lists or of using other compulsory or pressure methods of bringing such schools into line on some preconceived series of numerical or physical standards. More leadership needs to be given to the development of objectives and services grounded upon local social, civic, and economic resources and projects and less to effecting conformance to common norms.

CO-ORDINATED LOCAL SUPERVISORY SERVICES

Thirdly, I suggest that both the state and the county authorities can do a great deal more to provide guides, manuals and supervisory services which will promote more specialization, co-ordination, and sharing among two or more high schools, either on a county basis or on some feasible contract arrangement, than is now being done. Many of the administrative problems now plaguing the principals of such schools would change under such a plan. The principals with limited staffs and facilities would stop trying to duplicate in each small center the organization, curriculum, and other services commonly found in large, comprehensive high schools. Instead, they would seek to create unique youth-centered programs planned on a country-wide basis and maintained co-operatively by the schools of the county or other large administrative area.

CADET PRINCIPALSHIPS

As a fourth suggestion, I would like to throw out the idea that beginning high school principals commonly employed in the smaller schools be placed by State or county plan in a position where they are most likely to receive guidance and help as needed, rather than to be forced "to sink or swim" on their own in some completely independent small school setup. Perhaps such appointees should be required at the outset to serve cadet principalships either as assistants to existing principals or in smaller schools which are associated with other nearby schools manned by principals who are unusually successful. Such arrangements could of course be facilitated through certification procedures, salary adjustment plans, and other devices of state administrative policy. The point of this whole line of thinking is that a great deal more could be done to organize the state high-school services in such a way that the principals needing the greatest amount of help, both because of load and the difficulties of their jobs, could get such help either directly from the state high-school staff or through some scheme of co-operative organization and effort on either a county or regional basis.

IMPROVED TYPE OF TRAINING

Another source from which a great deal more help could be provided in meeting the administrative problems of the small high schools is the teacher training institutions. They should, of course, become fully informed of the plans and programs already suggested as centering in the state departments of education in order that they may co-operate with such plans and programs. I have often wondered why it is that educators who presumably are specialists in the best ways and means of instruction seem to insist upon doing their own teaching largely in terms of theory and textbooks. Particularly is this true as concerns the small high schools. From my experience, such schools receive little enough attention even in the textbooks and the theory; seldom are they visited or studied. Professors of education tend

for the most part to draw their illustrations from and to describe procedures that apply almost exclusively to the larger high schools. Since most of the school principals begin in the small high schools and since the small high schools so greatly outnumber the large ones, I would suggest that this emphasis in school administration classes be better balanced if not reversed. But I would suggest a much greater departure from the usual practices than merely a change in theory and textbook procedures. I feel that a great deal more can be done to utilize the small high schools found in all directions from teacher training institutions as places in which prospective principals can see, study, and grapple with the problems of administering such schools. I have no doubt that a sufficient number of nearby schools could be found by practically all teacher education institutions in which outstanding principals are now employed who could help the neophytes to gain first-hand information on the character of the administrative problems prevailing and the successful ways and means already employed to deal with such problems. I am suggesting, therefore, that much less time in our teacher education institutions be spent in classroom and textbook discussion and that there be more going out into the small high schools to grapple with the actual circumstances and conditions prevailing there. It does not seem to me very intelligent that we should provide practice teaching facilities for teachers and ignore similar practice or cadet services in the training of high-school principals. Indeed, I think that great improvements could be made in all teacher education programs if much larger proportions of the courses were to consist of actual schoolroom and school principalship activities rather than the mere reading and discussion of theories relating to such activities.

LOCAL ORGANIZATIONAL LEADERSHIP

As I have already suggested in part there should be a great many more services provided the principals of the small high schools through the offices of the superintendents of county or similar large units of school administration. While we are waiting for reorganization developments and for road building and maintenance programs which will make needed and meaningful educational services available to every rural youth of high-school age in large and well-appointed high schools, we can follow the example of a county which I recently visited. This county was not organized on the county unit basis. There were still 75 school districts served by 14 secondary schools. Four of these enroll fewer than 150 pupils each. Through the leadership of the county superintendent a wide variety of administrative and supervisory services are supplied. Some of these are paid jointly by state, county, and local funds; others are paid co-operatively by contact arrangements among two or more of the high-school districts.

There is first of all a County Educational Service Center which houses a county school library, a repository for visual aids, a science laboratory,

a large number of conference rooms, and offices for many supervisors, special teachers, and other specialists, each serving several if not all of the schools of the county. There is, for example, an auditing and bookkeeping service which not only looks after the various fiscal services of the county schools but also goes to the local schools to help organize sound bookkeeping systems and train local staffs in the essential operations. The county library and visual aids services are not only available for use by workshop groups, committees, and individual teachers, but trucks are also employed to transport the materials to the schools as needed. Supervisors of secondary school instruction, both general and in such special fields as science, vocational education, and music, are employed through state and county funds. But teacher-consultants are also employed who give all of their services to certain schools on a contract basis. Under this plan three mobile industrial arts shops move about among those schools which have no other shop facilities both to supplement the work and equipment of the local schools and to provide supervisory services. The county science laboratory is equipped with simple materials easily available in the schools and homes. Both teachers and pupils use this equipment. They co-operate in gathering and arranging collections, in building needed science equipment, and in developing units of instruction. A guidance service consisting of attendance officers, psychologists, specialists in testing and record-keeping, and specialists in reading and behavior cases is also provided through the service center. Many other such services could be cited. But those described will illustrate how the administrative problems of the small high schools can be simplified by providing many services through larger units of school administration and through intelligent co-operation among such small schools. Best of all, the essential services can in these ways be supplied by specialists, and at economical costs.

The ideas here presented have been selected because I believe them to represent constructive and new approaches to meeting better the administrative problems of small high schools. As such, I hope that they will not only stimulate creative thinking and discussion but will also eventuate in sound programs of help in difficult situations.

How Can We Meet the Administrative Problems of the Small High School?

R. EMERSON LANGFITT

THE excellent presentation of Dr. Gaumnitz has impressed all of us with the pressing need, scope, and challenge of the administrative problems of the small high school in our American Democracy. It might seem best

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to use all the remainder of our time this afternoon to profit from the contributions of the discussants and the members of this discussion group. Your program committee, however, in its wisdom and experience has inflicted upon you one more speaker.

Within a very few days after Secretary Paul E. Elicker sent me the definite assignment of this topic, I received a letter from Dr. Gaumnitz enclosing an outline of his first thinking on the problem, with the request that he and I confer in an attempt to reduce some of the possible duplications in our papers. In his usual thorough and scholarly manner, Dr. Gaumnitz, it seemed to me, had outlined the entire scope of this vast area of administrative problems. My first reaction was that Dr. Gaumnitz and someone more capable than I might use his outline to write an entire book. My second reaction was that Dr. Gaumnitz must be a very wise and careful student of the small high school because some of his points in the outline were those that I had already listed in my notes! In a later telephone conversation your two speakers agreed upon a rough division of topics to save you as much agony from duplication as possible or advisable. It was decided that I should emphasize some of the responsibilities and opportunities of the high-school principal in meeting the administrative problems of the small high school.

Immediately after reading my assignment for this program, I indulged in what was for me a very satisfactory period of reverie. Through the smoke of my favorite pipe, I recalled several principals of small high schools whom I had visited in a supervisory, consultative, evaluative, or merely personal manner. It was satisfying to learn that some visits and some situations had remained etched in my memory.

LOOKING BACK

I remembered the visit to a small high school presided over by an elderly and kindly gentleman who was somewhat embarrassed when I insisted that I should like to see a copy of the daily schedule. He assured me that a few weeks or months before he had seen his single copy somewhere in the tall stack of dusty papers that literally submerged his desk. To save time and further embarrassment I hastily accepted his assurance that he could take me to any class or group of pupils then in session and that he would be glad to answer personally all my questions regarding curriculum offerings. It might be an interesting point in medieval disputation, logic, or educational philosophy to decide if that principal had an administrative problem.

Then came the memory of another principal who had intrigued me on a short visit to his school in the late days of May or early days of June. The pupils had been dismissed. Two or three teachers were working faithfully on the avalanche of duties incident to the close of the school year. I

was informed that the principal could be found at his home only a short distance from the school building. There I found him in the beautiful afternoon sunshine enjoying the leisurely use of a lawnmower on his front yard. We talked amiably and professionally for a few minutes and he told me that the work of the school year was practically completed with only a little last-minute work to be finished by a few teachers. Since it was a somewhat casual and personal call rather than a supervisory or inspectoral visit, I did not get to verify the seemingly enviable position of this principal. My curiosity about the possibility that I was once permitted to see a principal of a small high school at the end of the school year without the usual seasonal types of administrative problems may never be satisfied. If there be one among you who can tell us such professional secrets of the craft, let him arise in our discussion period.

Several years ago as a member of a survey staff, I visited a small high school which exhibited a curriculum heavily weighted with foreign languages and mathematics. The percentage of course failures was alarming. Practically all of the pupils were destined to work on farms or in the few local industries. The principal bemoaned the apathy of most of the pupils toward the school offerings. Finally, as somewhat of a challenge, I asked him what he thought it was that attracted any pupils to his school beyond the period of compulsory attendance. He assured me that he had thought of that question and had decided that it was the daily, enjoyable school-bus ride.

Two other visits are remembered distinctly because the principals were not in the school buildings. One of them had chosen the day for a business trip to a city several miles away and the other one was engaged in the important activity of coaching the football team. In each case, bright and discerning high-school pupils led me to the principal's wife, who was a teacher in the school and who seemed to be perfectly competent to act the role of the principal. I hasten to disclaim any deduction that you may make to the effect that the way for the principal to meet the administrative problems of the small high school is to exercise superior professional judgment in the selection of a teacher-wife!

Time will permit me to share with you only one other visit which seemed to have unusual significance in pointing the way toward the solution of administrative problems. This school was located in the heart of an area of hill farms. It did not boast of a paved road beside the school, and the nearest railroad was several miles away. On the last day of school the good farmers and their families gathered for the morning graduation exercises. At noon the improvised tables on the school grounds were burdened with the weight of a staggering variety and abundance of food. The program continued with an afternoon session. The principal, the members of the

board of education, and a few leading citizens reviewed the achievements of the school year and spoke about plans for improving the school program and facilities and for securing money for the next school year. It was impossible for a visitor to fail to grasp the idea that this school was a co-operative endeavor of pupils, teachers, and citizens in the community. Here was a clear example of one aspect of the co-operative development of the school program and school budget. Here was democracy in action.

DEMOCRATIZE SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

It seems to me that the most helpful concept of general procedure in meeting our administrative problems is that of democratizing school administration. The constant aim should be to direct the growth of all school personnel in ways of harmonious living in the American democratic social organization. Authority should be shared among all those who have an interest and a responsibility in the school program. Every person concerned in the solution of the school problems should share in the formulation of policies.

Such a concept means the participation by teachers, pupils, and adults in the community. It also means that administrative problems will be considered as all the problems that arise when the school program is being planned, developed, operated, and evaluated. Likewise it means that the principal must work with the school personnel and with the people of the community in developing procedures and techniques. Operating under this concept, the principal will be a helpful assistant and co-ordinator in organizing the total resources of the school to solve administrative problems.

At the present stage of the development of school administration in this country, it would not appear necessary to emphasize to the successful leaders of small high schools represented in this group today that the role of all the teachers in the democratization of school administration is unusually large and extremely important. Perhaps it is a blessing that the very nature and size of the small high school usually demand the active participation of all teachers in meeting administrative problems. Certainly any principal who arrogates to himself the entire responsibility for meeting administrative problems is destined to achieve only a modicum of success if he is fortunate enough to escape obvious and disastrous failure.

The role of the pupils in meeting administrative problems may not be so clearly recognized. Help in meeting most of the problems can be secured from the young citizens of the school community. The expression of their opinions and attitudes should be eagerly sought and their abilities capitalized in carrying forward the life of the school. The education for tomorrow's youth should provide purposeful, satisfying, and socially significant ways of democratic living today. It is a constant challenge to provide for the

participation, co-operation, and assistance of the pupils in making the small high school a democratic community.

I feel certain that all of you will agree that many of the larger and most vital of the administrative problems of the small high school can be solved only through the assistance and co-operation of the parents, board of education, and the citizens of the community. The favorable opportunities for varied and frequent personal relationships emphasize the reliance to be placed on the use of the intelligence of all citizens in the solution of problems. In the long run the solutions to problems reached through the participation and co-operation of all people affected are more valid, stimulating, and dynamic.

PROVIDE A BROAD, RICH, AND MODERN CURRICULUM

Very closely allied to the concept of the democratization of school administration is the administrative problem of providing a broad, rich, and modern curriculum for the small high school. The key concept or principle now seems to be that the school should significantly enrich the quality of community living. It has the definite responsibility to develop those attitudes, understandings, and skills which will improve the physical, economic, and social environment of the school personnel and of the adults in the community.

The small high school usually has a unique opportunity to make meaningful use of the human, industrial, and cultural resources of its community. The relative simplicity of the social and economic organization of the small community facilitates this procedure. The activities and program of the school may reflect very largely the typical and desirable life of the community. In health, recreation, home life, economic activities, and other areas the community-centered school will touch and serve the lives of all the people. The solution of the administrative problems that arise in such a program will require a large degree of democracy in school administration. The people of the community will participate as partners in the educational process.

The pioneering programs of many small high schools have already pointed the way toward the integration of the school curriculum with school services to the community and with adult education activities. Perhaps in some small high school which you may readily visit and certainly in recent literature of the secondary school, you may find many examples of successful experience with farm mechanics, canneries, gardens, refrigeration plants, hatcheries, newspapers, movie theaters, beauty parlors, power machines, and other school-community services. You will also find other examples of departures from the traditional curriculums in school-work programs, excursions, and community surveys.

Many methods and techniques for broadening and enriching the curriculum in small high schools are available for use and may be studied in the large body of educational reports and writings. Some of the most promising of these developments include alternation of classes, combination of classes, supervised correspondence study, circuit or itinerant teachers, radio, television, and longer school periods for the core curriculum. More careful guidance and better schedule-building will also yield large returns in providing a better curriculum.

I trust that the procedure in guidance, schedule-making, and registration in a small secondary school as reported by one of my graduate students a few years ago has passed away completely. On the first day of school all pupils assembled in the study hall or auditorium. Each teacher announced what subject he had decided to teach during the first period of the school day and the room number. Pupils who decided for reasons of their own that they wished to take one of these subjects would then rush full steam ahead to try to get into the room before the class was filled and the teacher closed the door. The pupils returned to the auditorium to repeat the same performance for each period in the school day. Perhaps some of you who have braved the perplexity and inefficiency of advisement and registration in some colleges and universities could top this story.

One last short look at the developing concept of the community school as an agency to enrich the school curriculum may clarify and stimulate our thinking. Disregarding for the moment the inevitable overlappings, combinations, and variations, we can see in outline at least three stages or types of community secondary schools. The first type is indicated when the school personnel and all activities of the school are considered as a school community. It is in reality the community of the high school within itself. The second type might be called the community-centered school with the life of the outside community studiously reflected in the program of the school. The third type might be called the school as the center of the community. This concept of the small high school will challenge our traditional educational thinking. Instead of indicating specifically how to meet our present administrative problems, it opens vistas of new and more difficult problems. Perhaps now it is a vision, a hope, and a goal.

UTILIZE THE VARIOUS EDUCATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

Another area of great promise to the principal in meeting his administrative problems is the opportunity to work actively with various educational organizations. The continued co-operative study of the problems of the small high school is urgently needed. Principals in their local, county, or regional associations can do much to locate, define, study, and suggest solutions to problems. The state associations of secondary-school principals are able to encourage, support, or sponsor certain studies. The National Associa-

tion of Secondary-School Principals is probably the most promising agency to continue the study of our problems. All institutions of higher education preparing teachers or administrators for small high schools have a responsibility to direct promising studies, assist in developing programs, and provide some of the leadership for growth and development in this field. The state department of education is in a strategic position to mobilize the professional resources of the state to study these problems and to give wide distribution to the findings and recommendations. Perhaps in your own state the opportunity now awaits your action in securing the co-operation and full utilization of the resources of the state secondary-school principals' association and the state department of education.

One agency on the national level which has given us service of inestimable value in the past and promises to provide more leadership and service in the future is the United States Office of Education. We are especially indebted to Dr. Gaumnitz for his years of productive leadership and service. The range of studies, reports, and services in the field of the small high school which have been completed and are now available from the Office of Education is surprisingly large. I would hazard the opinion that not a dozen people in this discussion group are acquainted with all of the information and services relative to the small high school which are now available in the Office of Education. With the promise of greater Federal participation in the financial support of education now before us, the field of opportunity for Dr. Gaumnitz and his colleagues in the Office of Education becomes more and more vital to the development of the small high schools.

Time does not permit any discussion in this paper of two conditions or prerequisites for meeting satisfactorily many of the administrative problems in the small high school. It must be perfectly obvious, however, to all workers and students in this field that only larger local school administrative units and more state and Federal financial support for the public education program will enable us to meet many of our administrative problems.

In the suggestions and directions to the participants on this program, I noted carefully that the purpose of the discussion group is to provide ample opportunity for discussion after some aspects of the topic have been presented by the speakers. It is my hope that this short presentation will stimulate some discussion that may help us all see somewhat more clearly the unique challenge to the common sense, administrative skill, and social vision of the principal of one of the bulwarks of American Democracy—the small high school.

E. C. Thompson, Principal, Sauk Centre Senior High School, Sauk Centre, Minnesota, served as a discussant.

Group XII—English Room

CHAIRMAN: *Fred L. Biester*, Principal, Glenbard Township High School,
Glen Ellyn, Illinois

What Are Acceptable Standards for Inter-scholastic Athletics?

JOHN K. ARCHER

TYPICAL of the American way of life is our nearly unanimous interest in sports. The real red-blooded American boy thinks of little else; and his sister, mother, and, particularly, his dad are also well versed in the jargon of the sports writer. In no other country is there so much participation in so many kinds of athletic contests. We are all well aware of the values derived from active enjoyment of healthy competition. We can truly say that our nation's strength depends upon the physical fitness which most games develop.

The largest division of athletic endeavor in these United States is conducted by our 27,000 secondary schools. Where can be found even a small high school without at least one athletic squad? The modern high school prides itself on its broad curricular offering and also attempts to give an opportunity for every boy to engage in intramural or inter-scholastic athletics in each season. Our motto should be—a sport for every student and everyone in a sport. From the viewpoint of school administration, physical educators, and coaches, this phase of the school program can be most enjoyable with its enthusiasm, color and glamor, and values for morale.

SPORTSMANSHIP—WHOSE RESPONSIBILITY

Unguided, or lacking good leadership, the high-school athletic movement may lead to excesses and very undesirable outcomes. It can be "the tail that wags the dog" unless we have the good sense and foresight to maintain good standards based on the fundamentals of secondary education. Just as in all phases of the secondary school, well-recognized standards are essential for our guidance. We need banners to follow to keep on the right path. Because we have good standards we know that unfair competition should be prevented. We know that high-school sports should not be spectacles for entertainment solely. We know that high-school sports should not be permitted to fall into the hands of would-be promoters.

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Only recently, we have had our responsibilities in the administration of athletic contests outlined for us. The symposium of Dr. Delbert Ober-teuffer, "Sportsmanship—Whose Responsibility?", was presented in the October, 1948, *BULLETIN OF THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS* and in the *Journal of Physical Education*. The specific duties of players, coaches, officials, students, cheerleaders, athletic directors, principals, boards of education to provide the best in sportsmanship are clearly given. The need for united and co-operative efforts on the part of each one is admirably stated.

CO-OPERATION

This Joint Committee on Acceptable Standards in Athletics is an illustration of co-operation on a broad scale to strengthen the stand of our nation's schools for all that is good in high-school sports. As representatives of the three great nation-wide organizations vitally concerned with the development and administration of a desirable plan for athletics, we have an opportunity to contribute to the progress of this phase of secondary education. Through the joint efforts of our National Association of Secondary-School Principals, our American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, and our National Federation of State High School Athletic Associations we should be able to secure the full recognition for the best course for action in all of the schools of America. Our purposes are: 1. To recognize the fine progress already made in the establishment of athletic standards, 2. To hold up for all to see the best practices that have been evolved, 3. To do all in our power to bring about a clear understanding of the underlying and substantiating reasons for these principles.

It is not our idea to formulate a detailed set of regulations without regard to local conditions, initiative, or prerogatives. Our standards in our several state athletic associations have been developed by democratic processes. We don't intend to insist on conformity or to dictate any procedures—no one can say: "We're being pushed around." We believe we can agree on a statement of athletic goals toward which every school can work. By the very force of our three organizations working together on this project, we should be able to accomplish much more than by working alone.

WHICH STANDARDS?

If we were to ask several schoolmen to tell us what is meant by standards for athletics, we would probably get seven different answers: 1. One might mention specific eligibility rules. 2. Another would think first of game administration. 3. Athletic standards to someone else would mean specifications for facilities, gymnasias, fields, pools, or equipment for the teams. 4. Others would list provisions for safety in sports. 5. The rules of the game, the playing code, the instructional techniques in sports would be athletic standards to many others. 6. Probably the answer to be heard

most often would be that the standards in athletics are the rules and regulations of our state athletic associations, or the combined provisions for all states as assembled by our National Federation. 7. We would be glad to know that many others might say that to them standards for athletics consist of statements of our fundamental philosophy of athletics, a compilation of the ideals, aims, and objectives for interscholastic sports, a code of ethics for competition, a sum total of all that is basic for all sports in all schools throughout the nation.

FAIR PLAY

We have a single ideal in athletics that sums up most of these concepts. It is understandable by the smallest and youngest member of the squad. It is typical of our most desirable way of life in a democracy. It is another way of expressing the Golden Rule. It is the rule of fair play.

In passing, we are told by researchers in the Nazi ideology at the end of the last war that Hitler's language had no linguistic equivalent for our term of fair play. Such a concept of sportsmanship they did not understand or express. Only in a democracy does the rule of fair play attain its full significance.

STANDARDS FOR GIRLS

The National Section on Women's Athletics of the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation has set forth the desirable practices in athletics for girls. Several states in keeping with these recommendations provide only for girls' intramural, playday, or sportsday athletic activities and no games are held in connection with boys' games. Emphasis in girls' sports is on the participation of the many in a wide variety of activities with special emphasis upon safeguards to health and safety. All girls' games should be coached and officiated by qualified women. The purpose of the National Section is "to encourage and promote athletic programs for girls in the belief that these activities contribute to total fitness, enjoyable use of leisure time, and the development of the most desirable and attractive physical, mental, and social qualities of womanhood."

THE CARDINAL PRINCIPLES OF ATHLETICS

A previous joint committee of the National Federation and the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation in 1947 cooperated to formulate the Cardinal Principles of Athletics. Our Joint Committee is unanimous in vigorous support of these principles as the best expression of the fundamental philosophy of athletics. We urge that the National Association of Secondary-School Principals join with us to adopt these ideals as a part of our credo. Here's a streamlined version of the Cardinal Athletic Principles:

TO BE OF MAXIMUM EFFECTIVENESS, THE ATHLETIC PROGRAM WILL:

1. Be a well-co-ordinated part of the secondary-school curriculum.
2. Justify the use of tax funds and school facilities because of the educational aims achieved.
3. Be based on the spirit of amateurism.
4. Be conducted by secondary-school authorities.
5. Provide opportunities for many students to participate in a wide variety of sports in every sports season.
6. Eliminate professionalism and commercialism.
7. Prevent all-star contests or other promotional events.
8. Foster training in conduct, game ethics, and sportsmanship for participants and spectators.
9. Include a well-balanced program of intramural sports.
10. Engender respect for local, state, and national rules and policies under which the school program is conducted.

STATE STANDARDS

Although the rules of the state athletic associations have been developed independently, the interchange of ideas between states has been made possible through our National Federation. There is a great similarity in the codes of the different states. Nearly all states provide that: 1. Boys should be physically fit, 2. They should be protected against injury, 3. They should be well matched as to age or maturity, 4. They should belong to similar grade levels, 5. They should be loyal to their school team, 6. They must maintain their amateur standing, 7. They should attain an acceptable attendance and scholastic record, 8. They should not be permitted to change schools for the purpose of athletic participation, 9. They are to be coached by certified secondary-school teachers. Most state athletic associations also specify that there be a preliminary conditioning period of training for each boy, that a maximum number of games be played in any one sport, that games be restricted to a definite season and that no post-season games be played, that the playing rules of the game be adapted to the needs, interests, and abilities of the boys, that officials shall meet minimum standards of performance.

NATIONAL STANDARDS

The state associations joining together in the National Federation have agreed: 1. That there shall be no national high school championship competition, 2. That exploitation in exhibition or all star-contests is to be opposed, 3. That solicitation or proselyting by college or professional representatives is to be discouraged, 4. That games should be conducted between schools of similar size within a natural neighborhood, but whenever state boundaries are crossed, approval of each interested state association is to be secured through the office of the National Federation: a) if two or more schools participate in an interstate meet, b) if the round trip travel distance

is more than 600 miles, c) if the interstate contest is sponsored by an individual or organization other than a member high school. The National Federation as the largest amateur sports organization in the world is deserving which are often used to support a claim for a national championship. As School Principals and the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation in the maintenance of these standards. A majority of the Joint Committee gives strong approval to the National Federation in its attempts to protect the interests of the schools and the boys.

The Joint Committee will continue to collect information and to confer on acceptable standards for athletics. We have a duty to be on the alert to combat influences that are unfriendly to high-school athletics. We are working for a greatly increased understanding of the Cardinal Principles of Athletics and our state and national high-school athletic codes. We'll continue to work together to provide maximum participation in equitable competition with sportsmanship as our constant goal.

What Are Acceptable Standards for Interscholastic Athletics?

H. V. PORTER

THE topic "Interscholastic Athletic Standards" opens a wide field. In order that there be some possibility of progressing past the talking stage and entering the action stage, it is desirable that a small part of this field be blocked off for the discussion. Accordingly, attention is being centered on those standards which are related to controls over the type of athletic contest which has objectionable features, and especially the type of contest which involves the schools of more than one state, or which involves the building up of local pressures which make it difficult for a school administrator to maintain control without the assistance of a statewide or nationwide organization.

One such type of contest is the high-school meet or tournament which is purported to be for a *national high-school championship*. The colleges and a number of other organizations have included such national championships in their athletic programs. Among college leaders, there is a difference of opinion as to the value of such contest but the majority appear to favor certain of these under controlled conditions. Illustrations are: the National Collegiate Track and Field Championship Meet, similar meets in wrestling and swimming, and a National Collegiate Championship Basketball Tournament. To date, the colleges have not chosen to attempt a national football championship, but they sponsor or tolerate certain post-season bowl games which are often used to support a claim for a national championship. As

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far as the high schools are concerned, there have been many attempts to set up a series of meets in the major sports to determine a national high school championship. Here are a few illustrations. A Disabled Veterans Organization recently decided to promote a National High School Basketball Tournament, with proceeds to go to the Veterans Organization. Similar promotions have been proposed by other individuals or groups which hoped to secure the sponsorship of a nationally known service club. Charity organizations have proposed such a tournament for the benefit of the given charity. Until recently, the United States Lawn Tennis Association sponsored a National High School Championship Tennis Tournament. A promoter in Virginia has sponsored a National High School Boxing Championship Tournament. Several bowling organizations sponsored a National High School Championship Bowling Tournament. Until recently, a group of swimming coaches sponsored a National High School Championship Swimming Meet. Various bowl organizations have attempted to create interest in a National High School Football Championship bowl game.

A somewhat related type of promotion is that which deals with the forming of a National High School Athletic Club of one kind or another for the purpose of securing a good mailing list or of selling some product connected with membership.

POLICY CONCERNING CHAMPIONSHIP MEETS

A number of years ago, the high-school administrators, acting through the National Federation, adopted a definite policy concerning such meets. This policy is to the effect that no interstate meet which is purported to be for a National High School Championship will be sanctioned. It will be noted that this is merely a policy rather than a definite by-law of the Federation. It serves as a standard to assist Federation officers in determining which interstate meets shall be sanctioned. As far as is known, this policy has prevented all such promotions and, at the present time, there is no meet or tournament which is purported to be for a National High School Championship except for one or two basketball tournaments in which participation is only by schools in states which are not members of the National Federation or by schools which are not members of their state high-school associations. Until recently, there was one such tournament in Chicago and there is still such a tournament in Rhode Island. The National Federation has had no jurisdiction over these two tournaments since the participants were schools which are not members of their state high-school associations. It must be admitted that there is a minority of school administrators who believe that certain national high-school championship meets should be sanctioned. However, it is probable that a heavy majority favor the elimination of such meets. It would be in order for the National Association of Secondary-School Principals to take a definite stand in connection with this matter and, if the present Federation policy meets with the approval of

the National Association, this might be adopted as one of the standards for the association so that the weight of the association prestige will be thrown behind the Federation enforcement machinery.

Even if meets of this type are eliminated, there are possible ways in which promoters may circumvent the rule. One way is illustrated by a recent promotion by the American Veterans of Foreign Wars. In this promotion, school teams are not used and the name of the school is not used. Instead, high-school boys of a given age are organized in independent teams in each community. These teams play in a series of tournaments which is to culminate in a state championship and finally in a national championship. Because of rigid state association rules which prohibit a member of a high-school basketball squad from playing on an outside team, boys lose their eligibility for high-school play if they participate in such a promotion. Obviously, there are some good players who are not members of a high-school squad and there are also some high-school boys who are willing to forfeit their high-school eligibility for the purpose of playing on a team in which there is a chance for a number of distant trips. There are various ways for viewing an activity of this kind. Schoolmen might choose to accept the viewpoint that the school has no jurisdiction over contests of this kind as long as the school name is not being used. The other possible viewpoint is that such contests interfere with school work since they require boys to be absent from school for a considerable length of time if state championship and national championship contests are a part of the program. While it must be admitted that it is difficult to draw up any actual rule which would prevent such promotions, many of them might be prevented if the school group were to announce a definite policy as to the use of athletics for such purposes. Many reputable organizations have officers who are reasonable enough to recognize the validity of such policies. When standards are drawn up, some consideration should be given to matters of this kind.

There is a similar type of promotion in connection with tennis. After a number of years of negotiations between the National Federation and the U.S.L.T.A., the previously sponsored National High-School Tennis Championship Tournament has been abandoned except for schools which are not members of their state high-school associations. However, there is still a tournament for nonmember schools who are not under the jurisdiction of the National Federation. Events of this kind may well be the subject for action by organizations such as the accrediting associations and such as the National Association. It is doubtful whether nonmember schools should remain out of such meets.

STANDARDS FOR SECTIONAL MEETS

Even if it is assumed that school leaders can agree on a policy concerning national championships, there are still problems concerning the

standards which should be followed in connection with sectional meets and tournaments and in connection with any interstate meet or tournament. To solve partially this problem, the sanction machinery has been set up. Whenever there is a contest which involves more than two schools and which draws high schools from more than one state, it is required that a sanction be secured before any school may legally participate. This provides a degree of control by established school organizations. However, there is still work to be done in connection with which of these meets or tournaments shall be sanctioned. The attitude concerning this differs quite widely in different sections of the country. It is reasonable to conclude that the standards concerning sanctions should not be the same for each of the sports, and it is doubtful whether they can be the same for all sections of the country. As a guide in the matter, the National Federation has followed a rather strict policy in connection with basketball tournaments and a more liberal policy in connection with the other sports. If there is justification for this difference, is it in the fact that nearly all schools have a sufficient amount of competition in basketball without going across state lines? That is not always the case in connection with some of the other sports. The policy which is followed in connection with basketball is that no interstate tournament will be sanctioned except in those cases where, because of a panhandle section of the state or some similar condition, it is difficult for a given school to secure adequate competition without crossing state lines. Because of this policy, nearly all interstate basketball tournaments have been discontinued. Until recently, there were a number of such tournaments. Here are a few illustrations.

Until last year, the Chamber of Commerce at Durham, North Carolina, sponsored an interstate tournament in Duke University gymnasium. This tournament was not sanctioned but, until recently, several states in that vicinity were not members of the Federation and it was always possible for the promoter to secure enough schools to make up a tournament schedule. On at least one occasion, a member high school violated sanction regulations by participating. North Carolina has now become a member of the National Federation and this tournament has been discontinued. Another interstate tournament which was held prior to this year was the Glen Falls, New York, tournament. For a number of years, this was held without any sanction. This year it has been discontinued. However, the promoter of the tournament is holding a "Prep School Tournament" and entries will be schools which are not members of their state high-school association.

There are only one or two remaining interstate tournaments other than those which are community in character. One of these is the "New England Championship Tournament." This tournament was well established before

any sanction regulations were made up, and it is between a compact group of small states. Under these conditions, sanction has been granted for the tournament.

It is obvious that there are borderline cases in connection with the administration of this tournament policy. There are certain thinly populated areas, especially in the western states, where a group of schools forms a natural conference and it is sometimes difficult to fix the dividing line to permit reasonable participation in such areas while, at the same time, retaining limits for other areas. It would be helpful if the National Association could reach agreement as to these standards and to concur in present Federation policies or suggest improvements.

POLICIES REGARDING MINOR SPORTING EVENTS

In the case of track meets, swimming meets, and certain other minor sports events, the policy has been rather liberal as to the area to be covered for an interstate meet. It is not uncommon to sanction a track meet to cover a group of some three to six states. Here are a few illustrations. There are indoor track meets at Madison Square Garden in New York, at Bowdoin College in Maine, and at the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill. In the case of the first meet, sponsorship is by the New York City public schools, acting jointly with the A.A.U. In the case of the other two meets, sponsorship is by the university. In general, colleges and other organizations have been dissuaded from sponsoring athletic events for high-school teams except in those cases where the high-school associations have asked for such a meet and are willing to serve as joint sponsors. In Maine and North Carolina, the meets are set up in co-operation with the state high-school association and, to this extent, are partially managed by the high-school group. It is assumed that there are not many high schools which have indoor facilities which are adequate for the holding of such meets. Hence, sanction has been granted for the college-sponsored meet.

A number of outdoor track meets are interstate meets. An illustration is the Penn Relays. Until recently, the high-school events were merely a small division of the university-sponsored meet which attracted colleges. During the past several years, the Pennsylvania State High School Athletic Association has assisted in setting up the high-school division and, to this extent, serves as co-sponsor of the meet. Conditions have been changed so that the meet has warranted sanction for a nearby group of states. Distant states are not included in the sanction.

There are somewhat similar interstate meets for swimming and certain other sports. The question which needs discussion in connection with all of these is the extent to which distance travel and absence from school can be justified for such meets. It is necessary to weigh the disadvantages of distant travel against the values which may come from encouraging a healthy

sport such as track. If the present policies connected with sanction of these events meet with the approval of the National Association, the Association can render a service by going on record as favoring such policies. The prestige of this and similar associations is sometimes needed to prevent wildcat interstate promotions. A case in point is a so-called "C Club" meet which has been sponsored in Washington, D.C. This meet was set up by a group of alumni of one of the high schools. It was widely advertised as a National High School Championship Meet. The sanction of certain civic clubs was secured and invitations were sent to high schools in practically all of the forty-eight states. No distinction was made between schools which are members of their state associations and which follow accepted eligibility standards, and those schools which are not members of their state associations and which are under no obligation to follow such eligibility rules. Under these circumstances, it was not possible to sanction the meet. For the past several years, it has been held in defiance of sanction regulations. Although it is purported to be for a national championship, it actually draws only a few schools within a limited distance of the meet center and these schools appear to have no inclination to respect the sanction regulations of the state and national high-school associations, or else they are pressured into entering.

SANCTION FOR TRAVEL

In addition to interstate meets and tournaments, *certain games between only two schools* present problems when distant travel is involved. At the present time, the National Federation has definite regulations which make it necessary for a school to secure sanction before scheduling any game with a school from another state if either school must travel in excess of 600 miles for the round trip. This regulation has now become well enough established so that most schools apply for such sanction before proceeding too far with promotional activities. It is then necessary for each state association to adopt a standard to determine which distant games may be sanctioned. In a few cases, state associations have adopted standards similar to those which are in effect in Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Minnesota, and Kansas. This standard is to the effect that since the 600-mile round-trip limit has been adopted as the distance to determine whether sanction is required, this distance shall also be used as a guide for granting sanction. Consequently, these states will not recommend sanction of any interstate meet which involves a round-trip distance greater than 600 miles. In certain states in the northwest, a regulation similar to that in Idaho has been adopted. In these states, schools are widely scattered and it is often necessary for them to travel more than 600 miles for an ordinary conference game. The Idaho standard for determining whether sanction shall be granted is to the effect that an interstate game may be scheduled with

any state which adjoins Idaho but no interstate game with any other state will be sanctioned.

In the case of several states, sentiment has not yet crystallized as to the values and dangers in distant travel. Such states follow a policy which is similar to that which exists in Ohio. In that state, cross country trips are discouraged but, if a school can present convincing arguments to show that such a trip can be taken without excessive absence from school and for an alleged good reason, sanction for the distant game may be granted. Still another condition exists in some of the southern states. In certain of these states, football weather extends through December and certain games which follow the regular conference schedule have become traditional. There are always some distant schools which are interested in making a trip to the "sunny south." As a result, certain December games are sanctioned even though the distance to be travelled is greater than 600 miles. In all cases, the promoter of such a game is obligated to clear the contest with his state high-school association and no invitation may be sent to a school in any state where sanction regulations are such as to prevent such a trip.

PROMOTIONAL PROBLEMS

To illustrate some of the problems which are involved, here is a case which recently caused considerable discussion and which is certain to need further attention. The "Touchdown Club" of City J in one of the southern states insisted on holding a post-season bowl game for a post-season state championship. The state high-school association did not believe in such a promotion and refused to permit any of their member schools to participate. The promoter circumvented the state association and searched the country to find two high-school teams which would be willing to play a game in the "National High-School Championship Bowl." For this game, one of the two teams had to travel in excess of 2000 miles. In justice to the two high-school teams, it is probable that they did not know that they were being used as pawns to "show up" the high-school organization in the home state. In this particular case, the arrangements were made on the spur of the moment and there was no opportunity for the national office to prevent the contest. In this particular case, it is quite certain that a recurrence can be prevented, but it would be more certain if the National Association were to take a definite stand in support of action to prevent such contests.

Cliff Harper, Executive Secretary, Alabama High School Athletic Association, Montgomery, Alabama; and *Robert G. Andree*, Headmaster, Brookline High School, Brookline, Massachusetts, served as discussants.

Group XIII—Parlor F

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What Is a Good Program of Public Relations for the Secondary School?

LESLIE W. KINDRED

A GOOD public relations program: is one that interprets the school to the community and the community to the school. The two-way process through which interpretation takes place has several outstanding characteristics. These characteristics are the essentials of a good program. They will be described and discussed briefly at this time.

POINTS OF PERSPECTIVE

First, a good public relations program starts with a formal statement of policy. The statement includes a definition of public relations, the interpretative responsibilities of the board of education, a generalized description of the program, and a listing of means to be used for translating the program into action. Though brief, the statement establishes the legal character of the program and delineates the framework for its construction. Without such a statement, there is a danger that the program may lack direction and be wanting in the support that is necessary to make it work.

Second, a good public relations program has definite purposes it seeks to accomplish. These purposes cover the public ownership of schools and the obligation of those in authority to render an accurate accounting of the money, property, and children entrusted to their care. They recognize the need for stimulating popular interest in education and for acquainting the community with the aims of the school and the difficulties that must be overcome in order to achieve them. They point out the importance of parent and teacher relationships and how these relationships can contribute to the welfare of the child. They tell why the school should be responsive to community needs and suggest how this responsiveness may be brought about. They emphasize the role of the teacher in American life and the nature of public attitudes toward the profession that should be changed. They deal with the influence of pressure groups on the schools and how it can be off-set by means of informed public opinion. These purposes leave no doubt about what the school should try to accomplish in a good public relations program.

Third, a good public relations program operates in accordance with an established set of principles. Among those more commonly adopted in the

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field of school public relations are the following: (1) the board of education shall delegate to the superintendent and his associates complete responsibility for maintaining a public informational service about the schools; (2) this responsibility shall be shared by all instructional and non-instructional personnel in the school system; (3) parents and taxpayers shall be encouraged to participate actively in all educational matters affecting the welfare of pupils; (4) the use of pupils in the interpretative program shall be limited to instruction concerning the place and importance of the school as a democratic, social institution; (5) every effort shall be made to avoid social conflict and to harmonize cultural differences found in the community; (6) the interpretative process shall be based upon an organized presentation of factual information that is free from propaganda; (7) all informational materials shall be prepared in accordance with the educational, intellectual, and social levels of the people for whom they are intended; (8) all information presented to the public shall be directly related to the welfare of pupils; and (9) only those media of communication shall be employed which are in keeping with the dignity of the school as an important social institution.

BY WAY OF PREPARATION

Fourth, a good public relations program starts inside the school. It starts with an inventory of the attitudes, opinions, beliefs, prejudices, and thinking habits of teachers, nonteaching employees, and pupils. When the evidence shows that these groups are dissatisfied or discontented with conditions in the school, the assumption can be safely made that their feelings are finding full expression in the community—that people are being indoctrinated against the school. The average person is more willing to accept what a teacher or pupil says about the school than anything an administrator releases to the press or publishes in booklet form. Although some benefits may be gained through clever publicity devices at top administrative levels, these benefits are small compared to the damage that is done by those who are the primary agents in school and community relations.

The problem of employee-pupil attitudes and opinions can be worked out, however, if co-operative measures are adopted for studying the causes of dissatisfaction and correcting the conditions which breed discontent. It may take a year or two of hard and patient labor to accomplish this end, but it is well worth the time and effort involved.

Fifth, a good public relations program is based upon a factual knowledge of the community. For example, the educational levels of the community dictate the choice of printed words. The history of past conflicts tells what to avoid. The percentage of home ownership indicates the stability and permanency of the population. Group leadership studies bring to light those who exercise a strong influence on public opinion among certain segments of the population. Individual and group attitudes are often clarified through an

analysis of racial and religious composition. An examination of the purposes and programs of organized community groups discloses their possible use for furthering the work of the school as well as their motives for taking an interest in public education. The findings from a scientific sampling of public opinion show the nature and extent of satisfaction and dissatisfaction with the policies and practices of the school. In short, a knowledge of the community creates a factual foundation on which to build a public relations program.

Sixth, a good public relations program provides for the in-service training of all staff personnel. Carried on under the leadership of a competent administrator, an outside consultant, or a faculty member, the initial phases of the training program develop basic understandings of the nature and importance of school and community relations. Once these understandings are established, an indirect type of training follows. It is carried on through staff participation in the planning and organizing of the program itself. Assistance in this work is given to the staff by consultants and resource persons drawn from the community.

Provision is likewise made for the technical training of those to whom responsibility is assigned for the use of specialized media, such as newspapers, radio, motion pictures, and printed publications. There are generally a few individuals on the staff who possess the background and experience required for managing these media, but an additional number must be trained in order to have an adequate corps of specialists. This training should be conducted either by the school system or by outside institutions at public expense.

DEMOCRATIC ORGANIZATION

Seventh, a good public relations program is democratically organized and administered. Usually, the over-all direction of the program is centered in the superintendent of schools or in a subordinate to whom executive responsibility has been delegated. His principal functions are those of supplying constructive leadership, co-ordinating the entire program, and providing staff service on call for individual building units. He often retains direct control over news releases to metropolitan newspapers, radio programs, motion pictures, a speakers' bureau, and materials printed for public distribution. The bulk of the information channeled to the public through these media may be supplied by individual building units in the school system.

It is the individual building unit that undertakes the most important work of interpreting the school to the community. Operating on a district or neighborhood basis, each unit develops its own program in terms of local needs and conditions. Detailed plans are worked out jointly by staff members and administrators, with authority shared equally. Responsibility for placing the program in practice may be centered in the principal of the school or in certain staff committees to which clearly designated aspects of administration have been given. In either case, every member of the staff knows exactly what

he is expected to do and the lines of procedure he should follow in taking care of problems that arise.

Eighth, a good public relations program utilizes the services of laymen in developing and interpreting the educational program. The board of education may set a pattern for using the services of laymen by organizing an advisory commission. This commission is made up of individuals who represent a balanced cross-section of organized community groups. Its purpose is to express public opinion on important educational questions and to transmit this opinion in the form of written recommendations to the board of education. Although the recommendations are not binding upon the board of education, nevertheless they often carry strong public support. Many administrators claim excellent results from the work done by lay advisory commissions in interpreting the school to the community and in guiding school officials with respect to the wishes of the people.

Parent leaders are likewise used to create community understanding of the educational program. School administrators realize that parents want good schools and are willing to go a long way to get them. But they realize, too, that parents must first understand what the school is like before they are able to appreciate the need for change or see how change will benefit their children. Consequently, they make every effort to bring parents into school affairs and to share their thinking with them. Invitations are extended to parents to study new policies before they are put into practice, to appraise the work of the school and to make suggestions for improving it, to take part in curriculum revision programs, to consider the advisability of new buildings, or to assume responsibility for directing certain phases of the community relations program. They are also invited to speak before classes on subjects in which they have a contribution to make, to serve as chaperons on field trips, to arrange exhibits of instructional materials brought from home, to work closely with teachers on problems of homework and the like. Through these means they come to understand the work of the school and to enrich its instructional offerings.

THE PERSONAL SIDE

Ninth, a good public relations program places strong emphasis upon the value of personal contacts in school and community. Staff members are taught to analyze the contacts that they have with the public, including pupils, parents, friends, neighbors, and fellow members of churches, lodges, business organizations, and the social groups to which they belong. They learn how to write letters which leave the reader with a friendly feeling toward the school. Techniques are studied for engaging in telephone conversations and receiving visitors who transact business in the school. The importance of grooming and poise is not overlooked in checking over the factors which influence public opinion.

From these discussions, staff members become aware of the need for knowing pertinent facts about the school system and how to present these facts to others. They are shown the futility of engaging in arguments concerning school policies and the damage done by being unprofessional in their conduct with pupils, colleagues, and members of the community. They recognize the importance of friendliness and study the principles that govern human relations. They are instructed to note the tendencies in public thinking on education and to report their observations promptly. As a result, each employee comes to regard himself as an ambassador of the school system.

MEDIA THAT MATTER

Tenth, a good public relations program employs several different types of media for interpreting the school to the community. The more important media are newspapers, annual reports, house organs, home-contact bulletins, speakers, slides, motion pictures, advertisements, student publications, radio programs, open-house programs, exhibits, demonstrations of classwork, letter stuffing, and special printed reports.

The number of media used is not a criterion by which the public relations program should be judged. The number may be small or large depending upon the factors that must be considered in the local situation. But the media that are used should be prepared cleverly and directed skilfully in order to capture public attention. Schools must realize that they are competing for public attention with commercial concerns whose experience and financial resources give them a marked advantage. However, this advantage can be reduced by appealing to the natural interests of parents in children and presenting this appeal in variety of attractive ways.

The place has been reached in the evolution of school public relations where responsibility for handling important media must be taken from the hands of amateurs and given over to professionals, otherwise time and money are spent without yielding a profitable return. One has merely to compare the typical radio program in education with those having commercial sponsorship to realize the difference in audience appeal. The same comment holds for news reporting, motion picture production, advertising, annual reports, and similar media employed to tell the story of the school to the public. That schools have made real progress along these lines in the past ten years is evident, but schools have a long way to go before they can meet competition successfully.

Eleventh, a good public relations program provides for a systematic appraisal of results. Estimates of success in accomplishing stated objectives are not left to chance or considered solely in terms of personal opinions about the effectiveness of the program. Through periodic administration of scientific opinion polls, facts are gathered showing how well the public understands the schools, what changes have taken place in their thinking, and the problems

that remain to be solved. Through this means the guesswork in charting future courses of action is almost eliminated.

Besides opinion polls a number of subjective indexes are established to give a continuing estimate of program results. A careful check is made on the nature of complaints that come to the school and the sources of these complaints. Records are kept of all parental visits to the school during regular hours and the reasons for these visits. Significant comments made by people in the community are studied for possible shifts in opinion as well as sources of dissatisfaction that need correcting. The attitudes of pupils and staff are carefully noted according to a rating scale which permits comparisons at stated intervals of time. All parents and patrons in attendance at certain school events are asked to fill out brief questionnaires expressing their reactions to selected items.

A good public relations program, then, has eleven outstanding characteristics. These characteristics are (1) a formal statement of policy, (2) definite purposes, (3) an established set of principles, (4) adjustment of internal conditions, (5) a supporting basis of factual knowledge about the community, (6) an in-service training program, (7) democratic organization and administration, (8) the use of laymen, (9) an emphasis upon the value of personal contacts, (10) the use of various types of media, and (11) provision for a systematic appraisal of results.

What Is a Good Program of Public Relations in the Secondary School?

RALPH G. CHAMBERLIN

ANY good program of public relations is basically one of good human relations. Securing the interest and support of laymen through a planned public relations program is a basic requirement of a good secondary school. Today's secondary school must capitalize on many opportunities for contacts with laymen continually to explain its aims, goals, and needs to the public. The needs of society and youth in our rapidly changing social order need a great deal of two-way interpretation through interchange of ideas by laymen, teachers, and pupils. Parents must be helped to understand how the school, through its program, is trying to help the children in many areas of living, such as the acquiring of good physical and mental health patterns, the ability to live and work together, the skills needed for making a living, and those moral and spiritual values which enable them to live more dynamically.

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DIRECT CONTACT WITH PARENTS

Parents are in position to evaluate realistically the results of the school program in terms of actual child behavior and growth. They often have valuable suggestions and criticisms to offer which the school needs to receive and to deal with directly if its program is to gain public support. The school needs to have as many two-way channels of information and understanding as possible for cultivating the kind of relations which tend to break down barriers of misunderstanding and indifference between the school and the community which it serves. It is the purpose of this discussion to present a few of the channels which have been used and found productive in promoting good public relations by giving lay parents a feeling of partnership with the school in the task of education.

Our school contacts its parents before their children enter high school. School counselors visit the contributing elementary schools of our district each semester and meet with the eighth-grade pupils and their parents as a group to discuss high-school offerings in guidance, subject areas, and activities. Later the counselors visit the elementary schools a second time to hold individual conferences with pupils, their parents, and the eighth grade teachers. Here the child's cumulative record and test results are available to assist in planning the course of study for the pupil's first year in high school. Eighth-grade teachers, principals, and the high-school counselors meet each semester to clarify all questions of policy and to discuss co-operative plans, course improvements and changes, and co-curricular offerings.

In addition, the high school frequently furnishes musical groups and faculty speakers for P. T. A. meetings and various other occasions. Through such contacts with parents and children, a two-way channel of public relations is opened, by means of which mutual understanding and security are established early.

When the elementary pupils enter our high school, they are brought together as one group in one large homeroom where they remain for one semester under the direction of a staff of trained counselors who act as advisers and work as a team in carrying out a program of educational, vocational, and social guidance. Seventy-five minutes per day is provided for this purpose. A few members of the team are replaced each semester. In this way an increasing number of teachers are receiving in-service training in the field of guidance. The first four days of the high-school semester are given over to an orientation period during which time the new pupils become acquainted with the building, visit the various shops, laboratories, library, and other departments, and see other classes at work. They meet their teachers-to-be and learn about the content of the various courses and

the activities in which they may participate. Two half-days are devoted to a comprehensive testing program, the results of which are used to determine more fully the individual's achievement in language, spelling, arithmetic, and his mental maturity, social adjustment, habits of study, interests, aptitudes, and health needs. The scoring of the tests is completed by teachers of 9B classes who are free because these classes do not meet during this orientation period. Those pupils requiring special attention, special programming, and corrective work are taken care of first. Remedial work in reading and corrective work for those handicapped by physical defects or poor co-ordination are gotten under way at once. Their parents are called in for conference as soon as the test results are compiled and records have been checked. The child's tests are interpreted, and his program adjusted with the parents' understanding and approval. Individual conferences with all the new pupils and their parents continue until each has been counseled, and his tentative four-year program set up. These four-year programs, by the way, are reviewed each semester by the home-room teacher, and adjustments made in view of the pupil's developing needs and goals. The conferences are carried on by trained counselors. Parents who are unable to attend during the day are accommodated by evening conferences at the school. During the past semester 73% of the parents of 343 children were present at the individual conferences.

After the new pupils have been in high school about three weeks, an afternoon is set aside for the parents to come as a group and meet the advisers and teachers of their children. During the first part of the afternoon, teachers, counselors, and representative students speak briefly on the various phases of the over-all school program. This is followed by a discussion period during which the parents raise questions on any points which they do not understand. The latter part of the afternoon is given over to a social hour in the cafeteria where the children introduce their parents to their teachers, and each has a chance to become acquainted with the other. Finally, the parents of each entering class are invited to become members of a parents' sponsoring group for the class and to make themselves available for various services at the school.

SCHOOL-COMMUNITY PLANNING CONFERENCE

Another channel of good public relations is the Community Lay Conference. Several of these are held during the year. A planning committee of invited parents, pupils, and teachers meets to organize and plan the Lay Meeting. They select the school or community situation which is to be studied. The planning committee selects the person who is to preside at the general assembly and make the problem presentation. It, also, selects the group discussion leaders; these function when the general

assembly breaks up into small groups of about twenty persons to work on the problem. At least one training session for group discussion leaders is held before the Lay Meeting. The group discussion leaders are usually lay people with teachers and pupils helping out. Teacher-secretaries record the findings of the several groups. These are summarized into one report and made available to members. At our last Lay Meeting the question, *How can the school best report pupil progress to parents?* was developed. The result was some good ideas for the development of a better report card. Pupils, parents, and teachers thus have the opportunity to study a question together, exchange ideas and information, and clear up misunderstandings; they get to know and respect each other and their viewpoints.

CONTACTS WITH SERVICE ORGANIZATIONS

Then we have available another channel of good public relations through our contacts with the service organizations of our community whose members are able to offer our young people help in the studying of vocational possibilities. Qualified, public-minded persons from these groups are always willing to give time to talk with pupils and their parents about occupational opportunities and requirements. They come to the school to meet with the groups of pupils of like vocational interests, or they make appointments for a pupil to come to their office or place of business for a conference regarding an occupation in which the student has manifested an interest. The facts brought out in such a conference encourage or discourage the student in his tentative vocational choice, but the meeting together and getting acquainted is a positive factor in good human relations.

CONTACTS WITH INDUSTRY, BUSINESS, PROFESSIONS

Our noncollege seniors have a program of public relations which is carried on through their English classes. A part of their year's work is devoted to establishing vocational contacts with men and women in industry and business. The school maintains an active list of such men and women who have volunteered to interview students at their places of business. Our young people are given class instructions on how to write a good letter of request for an interview. They are helped to prepare themselves for a personal interview by instructions on proper dress, makeup, posture, and approach. They, also, carefully prepare a Personal Data Sheet of information to aid the interviewed person in getting a brief, concise picture of the student. Upon receipt of a reply granting an interview, the student confirms by telephone the time and date of the appointment, and the interview becomes a reality. Outcomes of the interview are usually very gratifying. The interview experiences and student reactions furnish excellent discussion materials for ensuing English class periods. The experience of one or more interviews tends to help the student clarify his

vocational plans and often completes a job contact before the student has been graduated. Busy men and women will gladly devote hours of their valuable time in showing young people about their offices and plants and in explaining job possibilities and qualifications needed. Of great importance to our pupils is the realization that busy and important men and women are human and willing to go out of their way to help them.

ALL-SCHOOL PROMS

Our All-School Proms offer another channel for building good community relationships. The parents of our young people receive invitations to be their guests at the proms. They may come in at any time during the evening to observe the festivities from the balcony of the gymnasium and to greet their sons or daughters and their friends during the course of the evening. A large number of parents now attend these affairs. After the dance, parents will often entertain groups of young people in their homes and furnish facilities for lunch and good times, thereby providing a wholesome environment in which to conclude the evening's fun.

YOUTH CENTER

Other parents voluntarily assist with our Saturday Night Youth Center Dances. They take over the Snack Bar service and food preparation as well as assisting with the tickets and chaperoning on the dance floor. These two are fertile opportunities for promoting good public relations.

HANDLING BEHAVIOR PROBLEMS

Frequently, unwholesome youth situations develop in the community. These, also, may offer opportunities for building good public relations. I cite the case in which some of the students of the high school incurred much antagonism on the part of both proprietors and patrons of several business places in our community by their lack of courtesy toward adults and their mutilation of store property. This difficulty had reached the point where the proprietors were ordering the young people to leave their shops and stores and to stay out. On one occasion the police were called in to intervene in the matter. Several leaders of the youth groups were contacted to talk over the situation. They were asked if they were satisfied with the relationships existing between themselves and the proprietors. They were ready to admit that they were not and that they, also, thought the proprietors' actions in asking them to leave the stores were not entirely unjustified. They felt that there were two sides to the problem and that the proprietors and students might get together to see what could be done about it. The proprietors were consulted and stated that they regretted the situation and would be glad to do anything they could to correct it. The student leaders then contacted the members of their groups and arranged a conference with the principal, and the unsatisfactory aspects of the case

were discussed. It was then agreed to have a meeting of their parents and the proprietors at the school to study the problem. A courteous letter of invitation to the parents was prepared and taken home by the students, and an evening meeting at the school followed, with a small group of parents, proprietors, and student leaders present. The principal presided, and the school welfare counselor sat in with the group. The discussion lasted for over two hours, with a most frank and friendly participation on the part of the twenty-two people present. Causes were identified and analyzed, and group responsibilities for attacking the problem were accepted. The parents and proprietors were most grateful for the chance to meet together in an attempt to solve an undesirable community problem. The student group is now working out a code of conduct and attitudes. They are planning to consult with their parents and the owners of the stores in the community as they work it out, and will present the result at a next meeting which is to be called in the near future. When they have co-operatively developed a workable plan which the group feels is acceptable, they want to enlarge the group to include more parents, proprietors, and students; and, finally, through the Student Council of the school they hope to present a plan for school and community adoption which they hope will build better public relations.

FAMILY CONFERENCES ON TESTING PROGRAM

Another opportunity for opening a channel to good public relations appears during the students' eighth semester. All graduating seniors are given a battery of tests, covering interests, aptitudes, reading ability, mental maturity, social adjustment, and probable college success. Comparison with the results of the tests given at the freshman level gives some indication of growth or lack of it. These tests are offered on a volunteer basis without cost to the student. All our seniors elect to take them. After the tests are scored, and the profiles are completed, the students and their parents come in for conferences. Each family group conference takes one hour or more. A school counselor organizes the test results and the student's entire high-school record as a basis for interpreting the student to himself and to his parents. Particular attention is directed to the student's social adjustment and the pattern of interests and aptitudes which appear in the picture. Evening conferences are available for those parents who cannot come in during the day. Through these conferences the school attempts to help the student and his parents determine possible best plans for after graduation and to offer suggestions for strengthening areas of deficiency. The record for last semester shows that 98% of the parents attended. The gratitude expressed by many parents and students as a result of these conferences indicates that good public relations are being stimulated.

CONCLUSION

These are but a few of the many two-way channels to good public relationships which are possible with the secondary school and its community. The school newspaper, the radio broadcasts, the principal's informational letter to parents, Parents' Visitation Evenings during which they see the school activities in action, the work experience program, and the work of the welfare counselor are other fine opportunities for achieving good public relationships. Finally, we must not forget that the successful, well-adjusted pupil whose many contacts with teachers, counselors, and office staff are pleasant and respectful is the best agent of good public relations in any community.

W. Bruce Kirkpatrick, Principal, John Marshall High School, Los Angeles, California; and *Curtis E. Johnson*, Principal, St. James High School, St. James, Minnesota, served as discussants.

Group XIV—Parliament Room

CHAIRMAN: *Neal M. Wherry*, Principal, Liberty Memorial High School, Lawrence, Kansas

What Are the Trends in Planning and Constructing Junior and Senior High-School Buildings and Plants?

LAWRENCE B. PERKINS

A manufacturer who wishes to package cereal has a relatively simple problem. He knows that he has to take certain materials, conduct them through certain types of equipment, assemble and mix them, put the resulting mixture into containers, close the containers, and put them into either storage or a freight car. The objective of all this effort from his point of view is seventy cents additional profit per hundred pounds. It's that simple.

Any manufacturer on any tangible job of work is susceptible to an equally oversimplified analysis. It is perfectly possible for the producer of things to be articulate and specific. It is far more difficult for an educator to define his methods and objectives, but not one bit less necessary. An educator can state that his end product is a well-informed and well-adjusted human being. Such a statement is a valuable reference line against which to test the means and measures toward its achievement. But at this point educators frequently take refuge behind a vague combination of words,

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usually spoken of as "educational philosophy." The purpose of this paper is to ask the educators present to practice being articulate in describing at least the means of implementing their very laudable objectives.

TRANSLATING EDUCATIONAL NEEDS INTO BUILDING PLANS

Remember that the subject of this paper is the translation of educational needs into building plans. The building should not be the expression of unorganized procedures lest it look as if the plans were drawn by tracing the boundary of some molasses accidentally spilled onto the architect's sketch pad. May I suggest an outline. There are four broad classifications of educational service to students. They are:

1. The offering of subject matter to the end that the student will have command of facts and some ability to think along the particular subject lines.
2. The opportunity to apply his thinking, philosophy and subject matter to such skilled subjects as physics, chemistry, shop, art, and the like.
3. The opportunity to become a successful social being through the proper exploitation of group experience in the auditorium, the cafeteria, and the other socializing elements of student living.
4. The opportunity to improve physical well-being primarily in the quest of a high level of health and vigor and secondarily to develop skills in games which are an immediate or long-range source of pleasure.

Here are four broad fields in which a school can be useful to a student. Their relative value and their specific implementation (a good educator's word) are subject to infinite variation, depending on the economic, social, geographical, climatic, and cultural environment in which the school is to be placed. The variations are so great that their appraisal in an educational philosophy and their embodiment in a physical plan transcends science and becomes an art. No formula could be sufficiently inclusive to bring up a dependable answer.

INFLUENCE OF THE ACADEMIC

Let's look at academic skills. The ways presently known to transmit this body of subject matter are class instruction and demonstration, lecture sections supplemented by so-called quiz sections, small conference groups, larger forum groups, individual reading and research in library sittings, individual student-teacher conferences, to name a few. Princeton has taken a position recently in connection with their new library that they wish the students to work in and be completely conversant with the contents of the stacks. Therefore, they have eliminated the large reading room and have honey-combed the stack element of their library with corals, where individual students establish base and expand their acquaintance with the thoughts of the ages. This is based on an implication of high student responsibility and contrasts with the concept of control and spoon-feeding so dear to the hearts of well-trained librarians. The Princeton approach is

undoubtedly a physical expression of a highly controlled student selection process. It also probably will not be wholly trouble-free in its administration.

To take another example, the large lecture demonstration room for two or three hundred students, with its corollary of small classrooms for checking the laggards, is the physical expression of a philosophy which either proposes to exploit to the utmost the personality of a show-piece professor, or the extreme of canned subject matter mechanized to the maximum extent, but in either case the formalized antithesis of the Oxford star arrangement where an instructor lives in rooms within the same dormitory block with other students and has the intellectual and social interests of the youngsters with whom he is thrown several times a day.

In the middle ground between these is, of course, the extremely well-known class session where the instructor and class work together under the vehicle of shared books and common assignments, or whatever method the instructor is big enough to lead.

These three examples are meant to illustrate physical expressions emanating from varying degrees of individual faculty-student relationships. In each of these cases a philosophy, plus the money to back it up in some cases, has determined room size and arrangement. All of this is part of your student experience, but most of you are administering educational facilities for younger students than those contemplated in these three examples. Again let me show you specific examples of your thinking turning up in brick and mortar variations.

A first grade teacher can perfectly well hide behind formal assignments, formal discipline, and a routinized, book-centered attack on the youngsters' impressionable minds. For her convenience, they can be arranged five rows, seven deep, and she can take her attendance from a spot plan of the room by checking the vacant spots. The fewer objects in the room which can be displaced or disarranged, the better its design. There is no possible objection to fixed seating if straight teacher-injected subject matter is the basis of the teaching method. This last statement should perhaps be modified to say that there is no objection arising from educational method—the only ones being from the standpoint of visual environment, posture, comfort, and the like. This teaching method and this planning expression have much to be said for them since each can be achieved with a maximum economy of thought and effort. Neither the teacher nor the architect has to venture onto unsure ground.

Contrast this method with one where the academic subject matter is illustrated and enhanced by projects engaged upon by the entire class, where a mural painting is made to depict a historical episode, where books are bound through varying degrees of artistry to gain comprehension of crafts and their value, where committee meetings, group meetings, and

story hours enliven the cut and dried eight paragraph assignment about Borneo's exports. The room which would make possible such a program would provide space and flexible arrangement of equipment to permit such activity. The variations thereof are legion. The important thing is that this difference in philosophy finds itself in mortal combat with the stereotyped and misshapen room which is perfectly adequate for the stereotyped and sleep-invoking program it serves. The essential difference between these two rooms has been the series of decisions that you will or you won't teach through the medium of committee meetings, that you will or you won't have project matter within the classroom, that you will or you won't be able to divide the class into noisy and quiet parts within the control of the same teacher, *i.e.* the class enclosed workroom type of thing.

INFLUENCE OF THE VOCATIONAL

The physical scientist has attained God-like stature in the last few years, so that he now stands at the apex of a pyramid complete with all levels of skilled persons, ranging from the superior turret-lathe operator at the base, to Einstein. The impetus of the last twenty-five or thirty years, and the war years in particular, has enormously accelerated the demand and respect for the so-called skills subjects, with shop on one end and abstract mathematics on the other, with way stations between. The whole attack on this problem seems to have shifted from being a not-quite respectable adjunct to a polite academic curriculum to a point where in some cases the academic curriculum is tributary to the skills program.

In the whole field of applied skills, there are two basic approaches: It is perfectly possible for a school administrator to take a position saying that, since his is an industrial town, since eighty per cent of the graduates of his particular school system will enter the local industry and make their living thereby, and since the college-preparatory other fields are relatively minor, it is his job to offer out-and-out vocational training, the end product of which is a skilled artisan in a particular trade. The embodiment of this conclusion is a shop which contains, if he can afford it, row upon row of high-powered lathes which the students use during prescribed hours, complete a prescribed set of exercises, and pass on to operate the next machine in the training that is considered proper for that particular school. The philosophy behind this assumes that the school must turn out a finished product, a man capable of earning his living by that particular skill. The obvious architectural interpretation is a shop which is a pallid microcosm of the factory to which he will depart as soon as possible. This system has several obvious faults, one of which is that it is rarely possible to have as good machinery as that to which he will go, or enough of it, although the recent surplus commodities have changed this situation temporarily.

The opposite point of view toward vocational training says, in effect, that the detailed skill of a particular commercial operation can be learned best in the field or in the shop where the compulsion of earning a living and the compulsion of meeting the company's standards will accelerate the mere training routine to a far higher pace than can be maintained in a school. But on the other hand, the school assumes the burden of sending to that manufacturer a resourceful person who comprehends machinery and its purposes, who comprehends a lathe and how it works and has had the experience of working it, BUT who has also learned what he can do with heated metals and with a set of ignition wrenches, who has some idea of printing and of shaping blocks of wood—the kind of man, in short, who could go beyond the machinery of a particular limited skill and would be resourceful when he met unprecedented situations—a man who would be salvageable when he came up against the technological unemployment about which we heard so much during the depression, when the need for his limited skill suddenly evaporated. The architectural expression of this is a skill shop where breadth of experience and breadth of subject matter is stressed in contrast to routinized detail. The extension of this idea is to dramatize by juxtaposition the unity between drawing and perhaps art itself on one hand, and the applied shop skills, so that the process from a desire and an idea on one hand, through planning, into execution and completion, and perhaps even some touching on the economics and usefulness of the end product which could be accomplished by putting all of this diversified body of subject matter in a shop-like space, all within sight of each other, is a concept which needs some great educator to make it articulate and then turn around and make it work.

The architectural expression of a skills building inspired by the recent great industrial buildings of this country and dramatizing, by its own simplicity, flexibility, and the varied nature of its contents, the unity of applied science and art, would probably be very beautiful and very effective.

Suppose that the educational philosophy surrounding this particular body of subject matter were extended one step further, and the unity of pure science with the applied sciences were to be stressed, and the subject matter of physics, chemistry, and biology were to be removed from the classroom type space and incorporated as a part of the applied skills to demonstrate the unity between the expansion and contraction of metals and the refined measurement thereof on one hand, and the action of hot metals in a forge on the other. Perhaps the imagination is enough to bridge this gap but a building which bridged it physically would deliver cheaper and better shaped laboratory space for the purely scientific subjects than does the classroom type space with which we are so familiar.

INFLUENCE OF THE SOCIAL

The auditorium is a vehicle for developing social skills. So is the cafeteria. For that matter, maybe the corridor is too. Students of all ages learn at these places the interaction of personalities and the art and science of getting along with each other. It may seem a little on the elementary side but a bunch of anarchistic hoodlums in a crowded corridor learn by experience that keeping on the right-hand side and dodging the fellow with a modicum of good manners is one of the quickest ways of getting to the other end of the corridor—a low grade of idealism perhaps, but it seems to work.

The lunchroom is an instrument with far more purposes than the mere stoking of a number of hungry animals. The reasons behind the usages and amenities of eating together become apparent as the lines of least resistance and greatest comfort in social relations. The communal enforcement of conformity through the weapons of ridicule and ostracism may be a mixed blessing, but it is the type of experience and lesson which is encountered inevitably in the activity of group eating.

The range of architectural expressions for exploiting and channeling the social pressures just mentioned can vary infinitely in value from hash slinging, mass production on one extreme, to pleasantly refined conversation groups at limited size tables on the other. The latter becomes increasingly valuable as it contrasts with the home life of the student. In other words, the hash slinging is more permissible where the majority come from comfortable homes than where this is the only contact which the student may have with some of the more modulated aspects of pleasant living.

There are several approaches to student assemblies, and each has its architectural expression. Let's test a few. Suppose that the student body to be served is huge—say 5,000—and that the purpose of the auditorium is to get them together simultaneously. The purpose behind this is to demonstrate the unity of the entire student body, its mass and strength, to expose them to the visiting celebrities under conditions of maximum "efficiency," in the sense that the most students are reached with the minimum of effort on the part of the program committee and the providers of the program itself.

The architectural expression of this formula is an enormous barn with seats running back as far as the eye can reach, farther if the lighting is poor, probably with balconies, probably with violated sight lines, and a system for the amplification and magnification of the human voice to the end that the remote dot which purports to be a human being on the distant stage will be able to reach the minds and consciousness of each student nearly as well as if he'd stayed home and listened to the radio. Bigness in this degree and the presentation of an individual personality are two

ideas that are in complete conflict with each other in such a hulk of a room. Human scale and 5,000 seats just don't go together. Such an auditorium forces a program bill of fare to become a series of trained orators, extraordinary musicians or groups of musicians, and pageantry, as opposed to dramatic art. Lighter programs and more delicate shadings of personality wouldn't have a chance going over in such a barn, as those of us who have gone to to the major sessions at Atlantic City are well able to testify.

To take an alternate premise, assume the same 5,000 students, but a program need to impart the values which can be offered by visiting lecturers such as Alice Marble, the tennis champion, or Cornelia Otis Skinner, or other people less overwhelmingly dynamic than Chancellor Hutchins of a well-known university. Suppose the music program is envisioned to invite local soloists and string groups, the high-school orchestra itself, and a dramatic program to include plays like well, almost anything by Barrie—in contrast to "The Front Page," as a noisy dramatic production, or the inevitable operetta with its oversized choruses to make up for the light voices of its members. If these are the premises around which the auditorium is to be designed, it automatically is limited in size. One of my friends believes that 1800 is the limit for the projection of a natural person's personality. He cites the example of having invited Alice Marble, the tennis player, to appear on his programs. He says that her value to the students that hear her is fully as much what she is as what she says, and that the ability to put this across would be stifled, if not extinguished, by presenting it to the whole student body at one sitting. She would become by the pressures of the huge crowd and the mechanics of amplifiers, *etc.*, a different person. It is my belief that, if anything, my friend was too generous in setting the figure as high as 1800 for this kind of person.

All of us have heard statesmen and other celebrities speak before huge conventions, and yet I don't think anybody feels that he knows any more about that person than he might have learned by reading the same speech. Therefore, the inevitable conclusion and the physical plan that comes from this line of thinking dictate a relatively small auditorium and a limiting of mass functions to those which can be done either outdoors or in the gymnasium field house or whatever similar equipment is available.

INFLUENCE OF THE HEALTH PROGRAM

One of the most noteworthy expansions in the scope of education is concern for the health of the entire student body, not only from the standpoint of big muscles but in the medical and dental phases as well. The school administrator will have no difficulty being understood, if he says there should be a health unit in each building, but he should be definite. He should specify the services to be offered, the frequency with which each student is served, its out-patient and community aspect, and can the town

afford it? Should he relate this unit to administration for statistical reasons, or should it be a part of physical education, near the gym?

Floor space for indoor play is relatively expensive per student. The school which can provide indoor play for each student each day under desirable conditions is, to say the least, rare. Yet this is an ideal, if the administrator and his colleagues consider it so. The obvious point to investigate is whether the indoors can be exploited more vigorously. If the administrator holds that all the youngsters in his school should be as well served as possible, to the end that each one will be alert and responsive in his other activities, that each will experience team effort and individual conflict with at least occasional victory, that each will acquire interest in a sport he can continue to enjoy, and that each will have received the kind of training best for him or her as an individual, then the exhibition athletics will have to give ground.

He so informs his architect. He translates those generalities into class sections of exercise, games, drill, or whatever—and then he and his architect start setting up equations. Three thousand seats equal two moderate sized playing floors. A choice must be made. He may be happily exempt from money limitations, in which case by all means he should have both. Whatever his philosophy, need, and means, they must be translated into specific acts by real youngsters to be housed or implemented as simply and inexpensively as possible. He should give real creative attention to exploiting the site in terms of paved areas, wind breaks, and playing fields.

CONCLUSION

This paper has attempted to present a point of view. It has attempted to suggest that the phrase, "a philosophy of education," can be translated into specifics which will genuinely design schools. It has attempted to suggest that architects and the architecture they produce will grow and improve only as fast as the educators themselves grow in comprehension and become articulate in expressing the needs of the students who will use schools.

What Are the Trends in Planning and Constructing Junior and Senior High-School Buildings and Plans?

JOHN GUY FOWLKES

THE most fundamental and significant point of view concerning high-school buildings that has emerged during recent years is the recognition of school plants as instructional equipment. In a very real sense a

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school building is simply the largest piece of instructional equipment that a facility has. To be sure, school houses provide necessary shelter, but it is possible for a school building to be adequate from the standpoint of shelter and definitely inadequate, if not indeed, a handicap to the educational program that is being offered.

In terms of this over-all trend or point of view concerning secondary school plants, the following specific points seem to demand consideration:

1. School sites
2. For whom is the building planned
3. School buildings and the inter-relationship of school departments
4. Provision for special instructional equipment
5. School buildings and adult education
6. Planning for efficient operation
7. Co-operative working relationships in planning school buildings.

SCHOOL SITES

One of the most gratifying circumstances in the planning of secondary-school buildings at present is the increasing conviction that adequate sites be provided. Where formerly high-school building sites of from ten to twenty acres were unusual even for high schools of two thousand enrollment or more, many communities at present are going far beyond such site sizes. Conspicuous examples of a new era in high-school sites are found in Barrington, Illinois, where a high-school site of seventy-four acres was purchased for the new high-school building for approximately five hundred pupils, and at Janesville, Wisconsin, where a site of approximately fifty-four acres contiguous to an eighty acre park was purchased. The advantages of truly adequate sites for high-school buildings in terms of the development of programs of physical education as well as the removal of classroom activity from handicapping noise are too obvious to demand comment.

FOR WHOM IS THE BUILDING PLANNED?

In the planning of high-school buildings at present, much consideration is being given to the question of who is going to use the building. Many communities are contemplating the addition of educational opportunity for those who have finished the traditional three or four years of senior high school. The contemplated additional educational opportunity falls into two major types: *first*, junior college opportunity or what might be called grades thirteen and fourteen, and, *second*, the program of adult education.

Some consideration is being given to the construction of high schools which will house grades seven through twelve with two separate adminis-

trative units of grades seven through nine on the one hand and grades ten through twelve on the other being operated within the building.

SCHOOL BUILDINGS AND THE INTER-RELATIONSHIPS OF SCHOOL DEPARTMENTS

The desirability and inevitability of inter-departmental influence in a high school is quite properly being recognized in the planning of new high-school plants. Examples of this are: placing of the fine arts unit in close proximity to the applied arts units; the placement of the music and speech units near the auditorium and large-use rooms; and the placement of textbook and supply distribution centers away from the administrative unit as was the practice for so many years.

PROVISION FOR SPECIAL INSTRUCTIONAL EQUIPMENT

The necessity for making sure that adequate provision is made for the utilization of new and special equipment for teaching and learning is being recognized. Recordings, radio reception, and screen material in the form of both silent and sound film, along with slidefilms and slides are receiving much consideration in the planning of new high-school plants. The provision of turn-tables, earphones, along with quarters for record libraries is an interesting development in providing for special teaching equipment. In this connection, the social studies divisions particularly have had a great opportunity in the direction of establishing and expanding recording libraries from contemporary discussions, forums, and addresses.

SCHOOL BUILDINGS AND ADULT EDUCATION

For many years, professional educators have expressed the desire to provide educational opportunity for the adults of our communities. Unfortunately, we have not generally provided building facilities for making adult education possible. In the planning of high schools today, special rooms for adult gatherings are being included. Furthermore, some of the facilities in high-school buildings that were included primarily for the education of high-school boys and girls are also being affected by their relationship to adult education. An interesting example of this is the planning of fine art facilities in relation to desirable and necessary exhibit space.

PLANNING FOR EFFICIENT OPERATION

An over-all trend is the painstaking care that is being given to the inclusion of special furniture and equipment which will increase the efficiency of classroom instruction and, therefore, classroom learning. Special shelves, filing cases, laboratory facilities, exhibit space for models, charts, and globes are interesting illustrations of this important circumstance.

COOPERATIVE WORKING RELATIONSHIPS IN PLANNING SCHOOL BUILDINGS

In the planning of high-school plants, the last trend reported might well have been the first one mentioned; namely, the degree to which high-school students, teachers, and citizens are participating in the planning of high school buildings. In years past, even high-school principals had little to do with the planning of new high-school buildings. School-building planning was done nearly entirely by architects, or architects and superintendents of schools, or architects and superintendents of schools and board members.

The well-planned high-school building of today is one in which there is close and intimate participation by all who will use the building. Architects themselves are recognizing the desirability of taking the initiative in making sure that the only sound basis for planning a high-school building is the educational program that is to be offered and hence guaranteeing that "all" be involved in the production of the largest piece of instructional equipment a school has.

F. N. Johnston, Principal, Beloit Senior High School, Beloit, Wisconsin; and *S. A. Brasfield*, State High School Supervisor, State Department of Education, Jackson, Mississippi, served as discussants.

**BEGIN TO PLAN NOW TO ATTEND THE 1950 CONVENTION
OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS**

THE Thirty-Fourth Annual Convention of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals will be held in Kansas City, Missouri, February 18-22, 1950. Another outstanding program will be planned. School exhibits will also be a feature of the convention.

PLAN NOW TO ATTEND.

News Notes

READING CONFERENCE—"The Problems and Techniques Involved in Reading Social Relationships" is the theme of this year's Reading Conference at Claremont, which is to be held the week of July 4 to 8, inclusive, on the Scripps College campus and which is jointly sponsored by Claremont Colleges and Alpha Iota Chapter of Pi Lambda Theta. Residence may be had in college halls at \$23.50 for women and \$22.50 for men, or in nearby motor courts. The registration fee is \$10.00. The theme includes the interpretation of all kinds of human relationships from teacher-pupil reactions in the classroom to the interrelations of peoples the world around. The Claremont Reading Conference approaches matters of human concern as reading problems, consistently presenting and developing the concept that the reading process is a part of all adaptive behavior. Lectures, demonstrations, discussions, and workshop procedure will be used in discovering how to read. Aural, visual, psycho-physical, and social aspects of reading will be studied in section meetings; while primary, intermediate, and secondary groups will consider the application of these principles to the work of the classroom.

In connection with these Reading Conferences, fourteen yearbooks have been published in which the theme has been developed by writers from all parts of the country, as well as by speakers at the conference. A limited number of the last three volumes are still available at \$2.50 per copy. The 1949 edition will be ready the first of July. For further information, address Peter L. Spencer, Director of Reading Conference, Harper Hall, Claremont, California.

READINGS ON LABOR-MANAGEMENT RELATIONS—The Institute of Labor and Industrial Relations and the College of Education of the University of Illinois have undertaken to publish jointly a monthly list of selected readings on Labor-Management Relations. Designed primarily for high-school students and teachers, this list places its chief emphasis on articles and pamphlets which can be readily placed in the hands of students. Inasmuch as possible, the periodicals have been chosen for their availability in high-school and public libraries and the pamphlets on the basis of ease of securing them and their low cost. Since many problems in the field of Labor-Management Relations are of a controversial nature, the committee preparing the bibliography has further taken pains to maintain balance among various points of view. In addition to listing the most significant current articles, each bibliography includes a section devoted to materials concerning some particular area or problem within the field of Labor-Management Relations. Schools, teachers, or others interested in education may have their names placed in the mailing list to secure single copies free of charge by writing Ralph McCoy, Librarian, Institute of Labor and Industrial Relations, University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois.

LEARN SPANISH—Six weeks of intensive practice in conversation in Spanish is offered by the Escuela Interamericana de Verano, Saltillo, Coah., Mexico. This course extends from July 4 to August 12, 1949. La Escuela Interamericana de

Verano is a summer school organized for the sole purpose of teaching the fluent speaking and understanding of Spanish through constant and continual practice in the language. The organization is on a college level with graduate and undergraduate work. Regular classes in various subjects pertinent to Mexican culture and civilization and to the Spanish language are held each day with class periods of fifty minutes. Those courses for two credits meet on Tuesday and Thursday; those for three credits, on Monday, Wednesday, and Friday. All faculty members are Mexicans of outstanding training in their fields. All courses are given in Spanish with the exception of beginning grammar and beginning vocabulary building, which are taught in English by a native Mexican professor. Books are furnished. The public library is open to use for those students who are enrolled for graduate standing. Extra outside work is required for full credit for graduate classification.

Students are placed in good, clean, comfortable homes of middle-class families, two persons to a room, individual beds. Although prices have risen greatly in Mexico, the school retains the same charges that it had for the first session in 1944, preferring to curtail the number of extracurricular activities rather than to charge more. For tuition, private tutors, formalized classes, books, activities, fees, and for board and room in private homes (for all expenses except fare to and from Saltillo, laundry, and personal expenses) the price is \$225.00, American money, for the six-weeks period.

GRADUATE PROGRAMS ON WORLD AFFAIRS—New York University's (New York City) Graduate Program of Studies in the United Nations and World Affairs will hold a special five-week summer session beginning July 5. This program will include a Model United Nations, a special three-day Institute for Annual Review of the United Nations Affairs, and a Current World Affairs Panel. *The Model United Nations* will be in session five mornings a week during the entire five-week summer program, under the direction of Professor Waldo Chamberlin, who has conducted a Model Security Council and General Assembly at the Graduate School. The Model world organization will be patterned as closely as possible after the United Nations in Lake Success. *The Institute for Annual Review of the United Nations* will be held July 21, 22, 23, with a concentrated program of three sessions on each of those dates. Its purpose will be to survey the activities of the United Nations during the past year. Like the Model United Nations, the *Current World Affairs* panel will meet five mornings a week during the entire summer program. The purpose of the course is to survey the current problems of the world, developing the background in each case, analyzing the problem, and considering it from the viewpoint of constructive solutions. It will be organized upon the basis of key areas, and each student will be expected to make himself an authority and to contribute to the discussions by prepared papers or impromptu contributions upon the chosen area.

HIGH-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS SALARIES IN MASSACHUSETTS—Massachusetts pays its high-school principals annual salaries ranging from \$2500 to \$8030, an article in the *Massachusetts Educational News* for December, 1948, discloses. The average annual salary now paid Massachusetts high-school princi-

pals is \$4,394. "There are 12 principals with salaries of less than \$3,000, 80 between \$3,000 and \$3,999, 75 between \$4,000 and \$4,999, 61 between \$5,000 and \$5,999, and 16 over \$6,000." These figures are based upon reports from 244 of the 258 principals in Massachusetts. In North Carolina salaries paid high-school principals range from \$2,160 to \$4,560 for ten months' service. This is based upon the state schedule. In a few instances principals receive supplementary amounts from local funds. The average paid the 893 high-school principals in 1947-48 from state funds was \$3,327.55.—*N. C. Public School Bulletin*.

THE ROLE OF PUPILS IN CO-OPERATIVE CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

—An article in the February, 1949, issue of *Teachers College Record* (pages 327-335) sets forth and discusses ten basic assumptions of the role of pupils in a co-operative process of developing a curriculum. These are: (1) Children and youth are the makers of curriculum—each child determining his own curriculum. (2) Children and youth learn only what they accept, and through behavior give expression to what they learn. (3) Participation of children and youth as a social force must be accepted, interpreted, and made use of by the school. (4) Keen appreciation of and profound respect for children and youth as individuals are essential for those responsible for their growth and development. (5) Children and youth have a right to succeed, to experience satisfaction in accomplishment as they participate more effectively in expanding environments. (6) Children and youth must be free to learn. (7) Children and youth must have the opportunity to realize their own potentialities, capacities, and talents. (8) Children and youth may learn from any factor in their environment—human or physical. (9) Children and youth must be free to express their ideas orally or in writing so that they may become skillful as participants in curriculum planning. (10) Children and youth must operate in a democratic setting.

"COURIER" NOW REPRINTED IN U. S.—Beginning with the January, 1949, issue, the *Unesco Courier* will be reprinted in New York every month. In addition, the Columbia University Press has been designated as the official agent in the United States for the sale and distribution of the *Unesco Courier* as well as other Unesco publications. Subscriptions to the *Unesco Courier* may now be obtained by writing to Columbia University Press, Columbia University, New York 27, New York. A full year's subscription is still only one dollar.

FILMSTRIPS ON CHEMISTRY—A new series of nine 35-mm. silent filmstrips on chemistry for use in high schools and junior colleges has been announced by the Text-Film Department of the McGraw-Hill Book Company. Designed to stimulate students' interest in the subject and to facilitate their absorption of a vast amount of unfamiliar factual material, the films include these subject titles: "The Kinetic Molecular Theory," "The Atomic Theory," "The Chemical Formula," "Equations," "The Structure of the Atom," "Ionization," "Acid and Basic Solutions," "Electrolysis," and "The Periodic Table." The films are correlated with a textbook, Weaver and Foster's *Chemistry for Our Times*. The series is available to schools, colleges, and film libraries through direct purchase from the McGraw-Hill Book Company, 330 West 42nd St., New York 18, New York.

ALLIED YOUTH—*Allied Youth*, a teen-age organization designed to help young people learn the facts about alcohol and face the social pressure for drinking, has just released a new organization manual, *Let's Organize*. In 13 brief chapters this booklet tells about the origin and purposes of Allied Youth; the kind of sponsorship needed for establishing new locals; officers, committees, and meeting plans; the services that Allied Youth can render to the local community. An appendix includes a model constitution. Founded in the early 1930's under the leadership of Dr. Daniel A. Poling, Allied Youth is nonsectarian and co-educational, organized primarily in high schools and colleges, although it also has a number of church and community posts. Teachers or students who want a copy of *Let's Organize* (5¢ cents), or who would like to know more about this organization, should send their requests to Allied Youth, Inc., 1709 M St., N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

PLANS ANNOUNCED FOR NATIONAL CONFERENCE ON HIGH-SCHOOL DRIVER EDUCATION—A National Conference on High-School Driver Education will be held October 3-5, 1949, at Jackson's Mill, West Virginia, administered by the NEA Commission on Safety Education. The purpose of the conference is to provide an opportunity for state and local educators to work together in developing policies and procedures which will promote sound programs of driver education for high-school students. Approximately 100 people will participate in the conference, including representatives from every state, from cities and rural areas, and consultants from organizations interested in this activity. Wayne Reed, superintendent of public instruction in Nebraska, is chairman of the conference. Initial plans for the conference were made at the annual meeting of the commission in February. Commission members reviewed activities of the past year and approved projects for 1949, including fire prevention, college and university safety programs, bicycle safety, home economics, safety films, and safety in physical education.

BICYCLE BULLETIN PLANNED—Plans for a bulletin on bicycle safety were developed by a special committee of the NEA Commission on Safety which met in Cincinnati. Eliminating the hazards of bicycle riding was the problem discussed by the committee and consultants at the meeting.

A CREED FOR WORKERS WITH YOUTH—

I believe in youth.

I believe that its desires and aspirations are essentially wholesome and worthy.

I believe that youth must grow up, and that guidance is better than domination.

I believe, moreover, that youth has a right to intelligent, unselfish, far-seeing guidance.

I believe that to rely upon fear for the control of youth is to confess that some one has failed.

I believe that youth needs responsibility; and that it equally needs opportunity to choose, a helping hand, and the privileges which responsibility implies.

I believe that vigorous, whole-hearted participation in the actual life of society is better for youth than isolated, protected, negative goodness.

I believe that youth's problems are to be taken seriously; yet I also believe that a sense of humor is a requisite for workers with youth.

I believe that youth will forgive us when we blunder, if convinced of our genuine interest and affection; but that sentiment needs fortification by the insight professional training can give.

I believe that we should rejoice in the independent spirit of youth, and be content when our guidance has been so successful that it is no longer needed. — Gordon Hendrickson, *The School Bell*, Teachers College, Univ. of Cincinnati.

DO YOUR SCHOOL BUILDINGS PASS THIS TEST?—

Curriculum adequacy—Do they provide the space and facilities for the educational program that your community needs for its children, youth, and adults?

Safety and well-being—Do they not only protect against danger but also provide a positive influence for improving the health and physical welfare of the pupils?

Interfunctional co-ordination—Are they so planned that the activity in each part of a building may be co-ordinated harmoniously with related activities and may be carried on effectively without disturbing other activities?

Efficiency and utility—Are they so planned that the handling of materials and the comings and goings of pupils, school staff, and the public are accomplished with a minimum of interference and a maximum of ease and satisfaction to all concerned?

Beauty—Are they pleasing in appearance, with simplicity, usefulness, and balance as ideals, rather than ornamentation or symmetry?

Adaptability—Are they so planned that they can be enlarged or rearranged internally to meet new educational demands with a minimum of additional cost?

Economy—Are they so planned that in original outlay and in future operation the utmost in educational utility can be secured for every dollar spent?

A CHECK LIST FOR YOUR SCHOOL—In 1943, the New York City Board of Education Committee for the Study of Practical Democracy in Education under the chairmanship of Mrs. Johanna M. Lindlof dealt with the problem of democratic teacher-supervisor relationships. A portion of the *Self-Analysis and Self-Evaluation* questionnaire is as follows:

Do you have a voice in deciding the educational policy of your school?

Does a duly elected committee of your faculty plan your faculty meetings?

Is majority rule used to settle questions at the faculty meeting?

Is there opportunity to hear all points of view at the faculty meeting?

Is discussion regarding the attainment of general rights or the improvement of general welfare permitted at your faculty meetings?

Is your teachers' conference a means of exchanging opinion or is it a monologue?

Are school problems generally studied by teacher committees?

Are these committees democratically chosen?

Do you have a teachers' council in your school?

Does your teachers' council consider

- a. problems of educational policy
- b. problems of administrative policy
- c. problems of teacher welfare?

Does your teachers' council have definite and adequate time assigned to it at regular faculty meetings?

Does the teachers' council have the right to call faculty meetings?

Is your council elected directly by all the school staff by preferential secret ballot?

Does your teachers' council provide you in advance with a copy of the agenda for the faculty meeting?

Are all matters on policy presented by the council to the faculty for decision?

RECORDING OF POETS READING THEIR OWN POEMS—Twenty-five phonograph records of poems read by their authors, comprising the first five albums in a series entitled "Twentieth Century Poetry in English," have just been issued by the Library of Congress. The recordings have been prepared under a special grant from the Bollingen Foundation, which also has subsidized a second group of albums, now in the course of preparation. For a number of years the Library of Congress, chiefly with the help of its consultants in poetry in English, has been making recordings of representative poems read by their authors, and it has collected copies of similar recordings made at Harvard University and elsewhere. Such recordings, because they capture a poet's emphasis and shading tone, are recognized to be important in interpreting and appreciating the meaning of individual poems.

The albums have been prepared under a distinguished group of editors, including the Library's successive consultants in poetry, who serve for terms of one year each, and their advisory board, the Fellows of the Library of Congress in American Letters, made up of well-known writers and critics. The 25 records represent poems of 21 writers and 77 poems. The recordings are on 12-inch, double-faced records of "unbreakable" vinylite, which may be purchased separately as well as in albums, and are accompanied by leaflets containing the texts of the poems read, biographical notes, and bibliographies. A catalog, listing all the titles included and containing order blanks, is obtainable for five cents in coin on application to the Recording Laboratory, Library of Congress, Washington 25, D. C.

GUN SAFETY BOOK PRESENTS VALUABLE TIPS—Instruction in the proper use and care of firearms common in the United States is the purpose of *Gun Fun With Safety*, by G. E. Damon, now with the Consumer Education Study of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, on leave from the Colorado State College of Education at Greeley. After tracing the history of guns, Mr. Damon presents a working pattern that will enable the sportsman to obtain the most satisfaction with safety from the firearms he uses. One section of the book presents state game laws affecting the use of firearms. *Gun Fun With Safety* can be obtained from the Standard Publications, Inc., Huntington, West Virginia, at \$6.00 per copy.

JUNIOR HIGH-SCHOOL TIME ALLOTMENTS—The Board of Superintendents of the New York City Schools has approved the time allotment scheduled for junior high schools listed below, which have been based on a 35-period week.*

CURRICULUM AREA	NUMBER OF PERIODS PER WEEK				
	Seventh Year	Eighth Year	Ninth Year	Special 7	Special 8
<i>Social Living and Guidance</i>	3	3	3	3	3
Guidance; home room; assembly; newspaper; student government; school and community clubs					
<i>Library</i>	1	1	—	1	—
<i>Language Arts, English</i>	5	5	5	5	5
<i>Language Arts, Foreign Languages</i>	—	2a	5a	—	4a
<i>Social Studies</i>	5	5	4	5	5
History; geography; civics; con- temporary affairs; human rela- tions; consumer education; occu- pational information					
<i>Mathematics</i>	5	5	5	5	5
Mathematics; applied arithmetic					
<i>Science</i>	2	2	5	2	4
<i>Health Education</i>	3	3	3	3	3
Physical activities; health teach- ing; health service					
<i>Practical Arts & Home Economics</i>	7b	7b	5b	7b	5b
Woodwork; metalwork; general crafts; graphic arts; electricity; foods and household care; cloth- ing (including dressmaking and millinery) and household fabrics; art weaving and handcraft; typing					
<i>Fine Arts</i>	7b	7b	5b	7b	5b
Drawing; painting; application; appreciation					
<i>Music</i>	7b	7b	5b	7b	5b
Vocal; instrumental; apprecia- tion					
MINIMUM REQUIRED PERIODS	31	31 or 33	30 or 35	31	34
Periods to be assigned by Principal and Faculty	4	4 or 2	5 or 0	4	1
TOTAL PERIODS	35	35	35	35	35

* If periods longer than 60 minutes are involved, the schedule should be modified accordingly.

a For pupils who select language.

b Principal and faculty determine how periods in each of these areas are to be assigned, in accordance with needs of an individual, a class, a grade, or the school. Care must be exercised to insure that no pupil is denied experience in each of these areas before leaving the school.

INSTRUCTIONAL FILMS—Coronet offers new films in guidance, health and safety, language arts, physical science, and home economics. Each of these new Coronet films is one reel in length and may be secured through purchase or lease-purchase for \$90 in full color or \$45 in black and white. They are also available through the nation's leading film lending libraries. For a complete catalog or further information on purchase, lease-purchase, preview prior to purchase, or rental sources, write to Coronet Films, Coronet Building, Chicago 1, Illinois. A short description and other information on each of these latest 16-mm. sound motion pictures follows:

Developing Leadership—Gives students the principles they'll need when their moment for leadership arrives. This film will help to develop these leadership qualities in everyone who sees it. (High school, college, adult)

Improve Your Pronunciation—Formulates a program for improvement using these basic rules: (1) pronounce every syllable, (2) pronounce each sound correctly, (3) use accepted pronunciations, and (4) use natural pronunciation. (Junior high, senior high, college, adult)

Carbon and Its Compounds—Explains carbon's simple compounds and introduces hydrocarbons and the more complex chain and ring compounds. It teaches appreciation and understanding of the many forms and uses of carbon and its tremendous importance in our domestic and industrial worlds. (Senior high, college)

Family Life—Creates an awareness of the happiness to be gained from a well-managed home and outlines a program for achieving it. (Junior high, senior high, college, adult)

Rest and Health—Explains the fundamental facts about rest and teaches students to build correct rest habits. (Junior high, senior high)

BRITISH FILMS AVAILABLE—The following 16-mm. sound films are available through the British Information Services, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20, New York:

Colour in Clay (1 reel, 11 minutes, price \$50.00 in technicolor)—This is the story of modern pottery, a skillful combination of art and science. The film shows clay being worked at the potter's wheel and the turner's lathe. After being baked in electrically fired ovens, the pottery is ready to be decorated with various patterns, either by transfer or by freehand painting. Glazing completes the process and the pottery is ready for use.

Food For Asia (10 minutes, rental \$1.25)—Produced for the Foreign Office, this film shows that in a war-stricken world, the Far East is the greatest sufferer from lack of food. Many of these countries depend almost entirely on rice for their food supply, but years of Japanese occupation destroyed the rice fields. The liberating armies distributed small basic supplies to each family, but the ration was so small that the population almost reached the starvation point. Today, tremendous efforts are being made to increase the acreage for growing rice and to step up production so that by trade the people may get the food they so desperately need.

WORKSHOP ON TEACHING—The new England Workshop on "Good Schools and Good Teaching" will be held this summer at Goddard College, Plainfield, Vermont, for the fifth season. It will be open to school board members, classroom teachers, principals, superintendents, and other adults interested in education. The workshop concentrates on knowledge of the child, his growth, counseling, and the building of a school program based upon principles of learning and human relations. The program is flexible and is varied to meet the needs of the members who join with the staff in planning the immediate purposes for the group each week. The facilities of Goddard College are available for the workshop including dormitories, dining room, library, studies, and recreation areas. The workshop attempts to bring together the teacher, the administrator, and other community leaders on a common ground for study and exchange of ideas in an informal and relaxed atmosphere of a six weeks' session in a rural Vermont community. For information write to Raymond Sanders, Office of Information, Goddard College, Plainfield, Vermont.

EMPLOYMENT OUTLOOK FOR PHARMACISTS—The employment outlook for pharmacists is very good for several years. Overcrowding is possible in some localities in the long run if enrollments in pharmacy colleges continue at present high levels. These are the main conclusions of a study of the employment outlook for pharmacists recently completed by the Occupational Outlook Service of the U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. The study was prepared for use in vocational guidance of veterans, high-school students, and others interested in choosing a field of work and was financed, in part, by the Veterans Administration. Information about the nature of a pharmacist's work, how to enter this profession, the earnings and working conditions of pharmacists, and on the employment outlook in the profession will be found in the Occupational Outlook Handbook, Bulletin No. 940 of the Bureau of Labor Statistics. The Handbook, which was prepared in co-operation with the Veterans Administration, may be purchased from the Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25, D. C., for \$1.75. A similar report on Insurance Agents and Brokers is available from the same source at the same price.

PAN AMERICAN UNION OFFERS LATIN AMERICAN STUDY MATERIALS—The Pan American Union, Washington 6, D. C., offers school administrators, teachers, and librarians in elementary and secondary schools and colleges a variety of supplementary material for use in connection with units of study and programs centered on Latin America and inter-American relations. Most of the material is in the form of reports and booklets, priced from ten to fifty cents each.

The illustrated monthly magazine, *Américas*, issued in three editions—English, Spanish, and Portuguese—is of special interest to secondary-school and college students, as well as to teachers and school librarians of all educational levels. The subscription price of the English edition is \$3.00 a year, with single copies available at 25 cents; the Spanish and Portuguese editions are \$2.00 a year and single copies, 20 cents. There are not free sample copies. The *Annals*, a quarterly record of all documents pertaining to the Organization of American States, is issued in four editions—English, Spanish, Portuguese, and French. Annual subscription for each edition is \$2.00.

A limited amount of free material is available to teachers and librarians. It is largely limited to bibliographies, directories, and mimeographed memoranda on subjects related to inter-American educational activities and studies. In order to facilitate service and to make publications available to as many students and teachers as possible, the Pan American Union makes two urgent requests: (1) the teacher, or a pupil representative of the class, should write *one* letter covering the needs of the group, rather than flood the mails with individual inquiries; and (2) teachers should make their requests as specific as possible. Requests for publications by title usually receive first attention. The Pan American Union welcomes teachers' reports of units, successful programs, and original plays, pageants, and radio scripts, with a view to duplication and free distribution. The following publications are particularly useful to schools:

List of Publications in English, including both free and inexpensive materials, free.

Organization of American States, illustrated, 66 p., 1949. A study guide for high-school and college students, containing a historical survey and explanation of the present structure and functions of the Organization of American States and the Pan American Union, with outlines, synopses of major conferences, discussion questions, and suggested class projects. Single copy, 50 cents; ten or more copies, 25 cents each.

Trade Among the Americas, illustrated, 52 p., 1949. A brief survey of each of the 21 member nations of the Organization of American States, emphasizing export commodities. Single copy, 35 cents; ten or more copies, 20 cents each.

Folk Songs and Dances of the Americas, 25 p., with music and sketches, 1949. Dances from Argentina, Brazil, and Panama; singing games from Mexico and the United States; folk songs from Colombia, the Dominican Republic, Haiti, Venezuela, and Bolivia. Price, 25 cents each.

In Our Hemisphere, a series of four illustrated booklets, at 10 cents each. The topics are: No. 1—The Chinchilla and the Tapir; The Lordly Llama and Its Relatives; No. 2—Three South American Rivers; International Builders; Great Ladies; No. 3—Glimpses of Latin America at Play; The Bolivarian Games; No. 4—Gold and Silver South of the Border; Cacao, Tapioca, and Brazil Nuts; Orchids for the World.

SAFETY IN WOODWORKING SHOPS—*Your Guide to Safety in Woodworking Shops*, thirty-third in a series of safety booklets that slip in the pocket for easy reference, has just been published by the Accident Prevention Department of the Association of Casualty and Surety Companies. Thirty-two pages are crammed with specialized safety information, ranging from the proper use of woodworking equipment for the guidance of the mechanic in a large commercial shop, to tips for handling small tools that will help keep the home hobbyist safe and sound. The booklet contains sections on general safety including correct work clothing, lifting techniques, etc., good housekeeping in the shop, the proper care and use of hand tools, and of woodworking machines, such as circular saws, jointers, drills, mortising machines, planers and lathes. Other sections deal with ventilation, the related hazards of fire and explosion, and brief reminders for

safety off the job. Of particular interest to amateurs and those with their own work shops are the pages on use of hand tools. Tips are given, for example, on the correct way to drive a nail without mashing a finger, and one on replacing the "mushroomed" heads of chisels or punches before chips can flake off and perhaps imbed themselves in the flesh. Single copies of this attractive and useful booklet are available by addressing: Association of Casualty and Surtety Companies, 60 John Street, New York 7, N. Y.

THE ARMY HISTORY PROGRAM—The U. S. Army, unlike those of other nations, has never had a comprehensive history of its performance in war. In an unprecedented effort to remedy this neglect, the Department of the Army is currently engaged in writing a reliable history of the performance of the Army and all its commands, at home and overseas, in World War II. For the co-ordinated direction of this effort, an Historical Division was set up within the Special Staff, Department of the Army, in which some fifty researchers, writers, and editors are at work. The Army needs such a history in order to profit by its experience, and the public needs it in order to understand the requirements and problems of national security. To serve these purposes the history will be frank, objective, and thorough. The Chief of Staff has directed that it be written "without reservations." Every effort is being made to achieve these qualities with his full support and that of the Secretary of the Army.

At the end of the war literally tons of records began to flow into Washington from all over the globe. Source material from ETO alone weighs more than thirty-four tons and the material from the Army now occupies some 35,000 sq. ft. of space in the Pentagon alone, and the entire collection of records accumulated by the Army amounts to over 17,000 tons. Monthly After-Action-Reports, required of every unit, were supplemented by the on-the-spot coverage by specially trained soldier-historians in headquarters and at the front. Even the enemy has been unable to escape the searching eye of these historians. The captured records of the German Army, now located in the Pentagon, supplemented by interrogations of enemy commanders, go far toward insuring an account of the enemy's side of the story. This has never before been systematically obtained.

The following books on World War II, prepared by the Historical Division, Department of the Army, are now available: "American Forces in Action Series"—*Papuan Campaign* (55c), *To Bizerte With the II Corps* (45c), *Salerno* (60c), *Volturmo* (35c), *The Winter Line* (35c), *Merrill's Marauders* (40c), *Omaha Beachhead* (\$1.75), *The Admiralties* (40c), *Makin* (35c), *Guam* (45c), *Small Unit Actions* (\$1.25), *St-Lo* (\$1.25), *Anzio* (\$1.50), and *Utah Beach to Cherbourg* (\$2.00)—complete series, 14 volumes, \$11.65; "U. S. Army in World War II Series"—*The Organization of Ground Combat Troops* (\$3.25), *The Procurement and Training of Ground Combat Troops* (\$4.50), and *Okinawa: The Last Battle* (\$6.00). The above books may be purchased from the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C., at the prices indicated.

Other publications scheduled to come off the press during 1949 are: *Guadalcanal: The First Offensive*, *The Lorraine Campaign*, *The Gilberts-Marshalls Campaign*, *Cross Channel Attack*, *The High Command: The Operations Division of*

the General Staff, The High Command, The Chief of Staff, The Persian Corridor and Aid to Russia, and History of the WAC. Prices of these forthcoming publications will be established when they come off the press.

OCCUPATIONAL ABSTRACTS—Two occupational abstracts—*Osteopathy*, written by H. Alan Robinson, and *Psychology*, written by George J. Dudycha—have been published by Occupational Index, Inc., New York University, New York 3, New York. These six-page leaflets contain information useful to the counselor and the student and are available for 50 cents a copy, cash with order, from the publisher.

BIBLIOGRAPHY ON SCHOOL AND COLLEGE INFORMATION—Guidance officers, teachers, and librarians at this time of year are constantly being sought by high-school students for sources of information about colleges, universities, junior colleges, and professional, technical, business, and trade schools. In order to fill this need, Miss Ruth E. Anderson, Staatsburg, New York, has prepared a bibliography of reference materials of this type. The author has classified these sources under three major headings—*General* (publications national in scope, giving information usually concerning various kinds of institutions); *Special* (publications concerned with institutions which train for specific occupations and those which offer correspondence courses); and *Geographical* (publications of institutions serving a specific area.) Copies of this 28-page publication may be secured from the author at the above address for 50 cents each, with discounts for quantity orders.

ATTENTION, PRINCIPALS!

A committee of the NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS is planning a special issue of *THE BULLETIN on Supervision in Secondary Schools*.

The committee wants your help.

It would like to know what supervisory problems you have—the ones you'd like to see discussed in this special issue.

Won't you take a minute to jot them down?

With your help, the committee can turn out a publication that will be highly useful.

SEND YOUR SUGGESTIONS
TO THE CHAIRMAN.

LESLIE W. KINDRED, Teachers College,
Temple University, Philadelphia 22, Penna.

The Book Column

Professional Books

AINSWORTH, D. S., et al. *Individual Sports for Women*. Philadelphia 5: W. B. Saunders Co. 1949. 422 pp. \$4.25. This book (second edition) is intended to serve physical education teachers of girls as a guide in developing good recreational programs. It contains not only ideas on the conduct and teaching of sports but also emphasizes method of presentation. It covers the following sports for girls: archery, badminton, bowling, fencing, golf, riding, swimming, tennis, and tournaments.

American Association of School Administrators. *American School Buildings*. Wash. 6, D. C.: The Association, 1201 16th St., N. W. 1949. 525 pp. \$4.00. This twenty-seventh yearbook of the Association describes the latest developments in school building design, construction, heating and ventilation, lighting and color, building materials, and furniture and equipment. Designed to aid communities throughout the nation which are struggling to meet increased demands being made upon their schools, it outlines methods of improving services as rapidly and efficiently as possible. Topics covered include the school board's responsibility for the educational plant, economies in construction and design, rehabilitation of buildings, financing the plant construction program, and major steps in building a school.

"Today," states the Commission, "the immediate need for new school buildings is overwhelming. Most obvious is the demand for housing the babies born during the war and postwar years who soon will be in school. Fully as urgent is the need for replacing unsafe and outdated structures that were kept in use through nearly twenty years of depression and war." The problem, as reported by the American Association of School Administrators, is not so simple, however, as that of merely replacing or extending the school facilities now in use. For, the authors assert, "the more that today's citizens reflect on the demands to be met by the school plant, the more they realize that new schools must be more spacious and must be provided with many more mechanical features than the typical building in use today. This added space and serviceability means added cost. Even without these improvements, costs of construction have risen to such levels that new buildings of the most conservative type are far more costly than any previous school-house construction. And, although added costs must be met, school money remains as difficult as ever to secure. In this series of dilemmas school administrators and schoolboards must exercise their soundest judgment. They should make their decisions on building policies with the help of the school staff, other citizens of the community, and such expert consultative services as are available, and will want to inform themselves on accepted principles and desirable practices in providing a total school plant that will meet present and future community needs."

Definition of the scope and quality of the community's educational program is described as the first step in improving school services. Among questions which

communities must answer are: What age groups shall the schools serve? Shall there be school opportunities for the three-to-five-year-old children? Shall there be small primary schools for young children and junior colleges for ages eighteen to twenty? How shall future grades one through fourteen be organized? What educational services shall be available for adults? What activities and subject matter shall constitute the curriculum for each group of learners?

"In small communities," the AASA points out, "it is fully as important as in the larger districts to give careful consideration to the problem of defining and planning the ultimate school plant. Many small American school districts have neither adequate financial means to build the schools they need nor the number of pupils necessary to make a really first-class high school or elementary school. Consolidation of small districts into larger units seems to offer at least a partial solution for this situation . . . One high school, planned to serve two or three contiguous districts, is far more economical to build than two or three small schools with duplication of costly facilities. Furthermore, better educational programs are possible in larger schools because of more diversified facilities and curriculum."

Another trend to which attention must be given, continues the report, "is the increase in the use of the school as a community building. This is a revival in modern urban America of the community function that the 'little red school-house' served in pioneer rural America." Examples of school-community provisions are: the auditorium and the gymnasium which can be used by both groups; "all-purpose" rooms which can be used by the school orchestra and band, by Boy and Girl Scouts, mothers' groups, and for many other school and community activities; and playgrounds and recreational facilities.

American Council on Education. *Intergroup Relations in Teaching Materials*. Wash. 6, D. C.: The Council, 744 Jackson Place. 1949. 231 pp. Of the 131,699,273 Americans reported in the 1940 census, approximately 11,500,000 were born outside of the United States; 118,000,000 were white; 13,000,000 were Negro; 5,000,000 were Jews; 22,000,000 were Roman Catholics; 30,000,000 were Protestants; one third of a million were American Indians; one third of a million were Asiatics—and so on. Many Americans speak another language (their native tongue) in their homes and their communities. Because education is our most powerful public and social force, because it is the primary job of schools to educate for citizenship, educators (and publishers who disseminate education) cannot avoid a high degree of responsibility for the relations among groups of American citizens.

This study is not a partisan plan for "better treatment" of Negroes or Jews or Orientals or Mexicans or other racial or ethnic or religious groups, but it does analyze issues and materials in which the groups sometimes feel themselves affronted or unjustly ignored. No "black list" or "white list" of books is offered; individual examples remain anonymous. The committee hopes that its survey and appraisal of teaching materials may be of practical help to all those—or at least some of those—who speak, write, and publish for the guidances of youth.

BEAUMONT, HENRY, and MACOMBER, F. G. *Psychological Factors in Education*. New York 18: McGraw-Hill Book Co. 1949. 328 pp. \$3.00. This text is written primarily for students of education who are undertaking a study of psychological factors and their implications for classroom teaching in elementary and secondary schools. It is hoped that it will also serve the requirements of teachers in the field whose experience has indicated a need for further study. As most teacher education curricula prescribe a course in general psychology as a prerequisite to the study of educational psychology, the authors have assumed a fair knowledge of the physiological basis of learning on the part of the student. They have tried to make this discussion a continuation of the student's learning with the chief emphasis on the application of psychological knowledge to the educational process in the public schools.

BERG, R. H. *Polio and its Problems*. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1948. 186 pp. Here is the dramatic cavalcade of tireless research, perilous experiment, and stern persistence as science answers the challenge of poliomyelitis. Medical research becomes a living thing as Roland Berg weaves the triumphs and disappointments of research scientists into a vivid and absorbing tale. The author recreates the steps that have been taken since the first probings into the cause, cure, and prevention of infantile paralysis; he bares the specter of defeats which have incited more relentless scientific effort; and describes clearly the tremendous problems and obstacles yet to be overcome.

BOSSING, N. L. *Principles of Secondary Education*. New York 11: Prentice-Hall. 1949. 463 pp. \$3.85. The book has been organized into four major areas in definite sequential relations of the areas to each other in their development. In the first part the secondary school is candidly viewed in the light of preconceived ideas brought to the profession by the neophyte. The secondary school is then objectively surveyed in terms of its present physical status. Part II is devoted to an effort to understand how our secondary school has become what it is, through a careful study of its antecedents and historical development. Throughout, the thesis is maintained that we are the product of our past and that we can understand, appreciate, and intelligently modify only as we see the secondary school as a product of social evolution. Part III raises the fundamental question of what should be the task of secondary education within the framework of our democratic society. The answer to this question, of course, involves a full understanding of the nature of the adolescent learner, the nature of our democratic society, and the peculiar nature of the task of education when these two factors are clearly taken into account. Part IV is devoted to a consideration of ways and means of bringing to fruition the task envisioned in Part III.

BROUWER, P. J. *Student Personnel Services in General Education*. Wash. 6, D. C.: American Council on Education, 744 Jackson Place. 1949. 337 pp. \$3.50. The book analyzes ways to identify and satisfy the needs of students through the co-ordinated use of fact-finding devices and personnel services and through the educative value of living arrangements and extraclass life. The study emphasizes the conviction that all those who influence the educational experiences of students are personnel workers.

BUROS, O. K. editor. *The Third Mental Measurements Yearbook*. New Brunswick: Rutgers Univ. Press. 1949. 1063 pp. \$12.50. This volume is the sixth in a series of publications prepared to assist test users in education, industry, psychiatry, and psychology to locate and evaluate tests and books on testing. This *Third Mental Measurements Yearbook* covers the period 1940 through 1947. It consists of two major sections: "Tests and Reviews" (pp. 1-750) and "Books and Reviews" (pp. 751-978). In addition, there are five indexes and directories: Periodical Directory and Index, Publishers Directory and Index, Index of Titles, Index of Names, and Classified Index of Tests. The "Tests and Reviews" section lists 663 tests, 713 original reviews, and 3,368 references on the construction, validity, use, and limitations of specific tests. Seventy-five per cent of the tests included have been reviewed by one or more reviewers; thirty per cent, by two or more reviewers; 6.5 per cent, by three or more reviewers; and 1.5 per cent by four or more reviewers. The *Yearbook* attempts to list all commercially available tests—educational, psychological, and vocational—published as separates in English-speaking countries between October, 1940, and December, 1947. The following two classes of tests are also included: (a) older tests selected for review and (b) tests published during the 15-year period (1933-1948) covered by this series of yearbook and bibliographies but not previously listed.

The "Books and Reviews" section lists 549 books on measurements and closely related fields and 785 excerpts from reviews of these books in 135 journals. An attempt has been made to list all measurement books published in English-speaking countries between October, 1940, and December, 1947. In addition, older books are listed whenever accompanied by review excerpts not previously published in this series. The preparation and publication of this volume has been made possible by the sponsorship and support of the School of Education of Rutgers University.

BUTLER, G. D. *Introduction to Community Recreation*. New York 18: McGraw-Hill Book Co. 1949. 582 pp. \$4.50. This thoroughly revised edition is the answer to the demand, which has been increasing since the beginning of the Second World War, for this type of book. This edition deals with those forms of recreation which require a large degree of organization and leadership, and in which participation plays an important part. It considers recreation as a function of local government like health, education, and other essential public services.

In this volume, the student will get a comprehensive picture of community recreation in the United States. The author includes sections dealing with the nature, extent, significance, and history of community recreation; recreation leadership personnel—their functions, training, and selection; the planning of recreation areas and facilities; recreation activities and program planning; the operation of recreation areas and facilities; descriptions of various community recreation programs, and methods and problems of organizing and administering a community recreation program.

CHAMBERLAIN, L. M., and KINDRED, L. W. *The Teacher and School Organization*. New York 11: Prentice-Hall. 1949. 700 pp. \$5.00. This book (second edition) seeks to give the reader an understanding of the scope and general char-

acter of the American public school system, of its organization and the administrative units and agencies through which it is managed, and of those administrative tasks in which the classroom teacher may be expected to participate. The present edition is more than a mere revision of the original text. The book has been expanded to cover additional topics, data have been brought up to date, and in some respects the approach has been altered in terms of recent educational developments. Almost all of the work of revising and expanding the text has been done by Dr. Kindred. The resulting joint authorship has produced a more comprehensive treatment and a fresh point of view, without sacrifice of the better qualities of the original text.

Toward the accomplishment of the purposes outlined above, the 22 chapters have been presented under six major divisions as follows: (1) The Scope of American Education, (2) The Administration of American Education, (3) Problems of Prospective Teachers, (4) Instructional Responsibilities, (5) Activities Related to Instruction, and (6) Membership in the Teaching Profession. Although the topics treated are for the most part administrative in character, the presentation throughout is from the viewpoint of the classroom teacher and his responsibilities. The book is designed primarily to contribute to the preservice training of the teacher who wishes to make his fullest contribution in a modern elementary or secondary school. However, it should also be of benefit to administrators and teachers in service, as a handbook, or as a text for study groups.

ELLIOTT, GODFREY, editor. *Film and Education*. New York 16: Philosophical Library. 1948. 609 pp. \$7.50. This book examines in detail the growing importance of the motion picture in school and community life. It is a discussion of the present status and uses of the educational motion picture in all major phases of modern life, written for all those who use and work with the film in any of its nontheatrical applications. Comprised of thirty-seven chapters, each written by an outstanding authority in the educational film field especially selected for his ability to speak on the subject, this book presents an up-to-the-minute survey of the nontheatrical film in all its applications inside and outside the school. The uses of the film in religious education, business, government, and industry are competently discussed. One section of the book surveys the status of the educational film abroad.

ERICKSON, C. E. *A Practical Handbook for Counselors*. New York 10: Ronald Press Co. 1949. 232 pp. \$3.00. This is a handbook of helpful information for counselors, teachers, and school administrators. Those staff members having day-to-day responsibilities for counseling will find the material is practical and the question-and-answer organization is useful. Materials are included which deal with the elementary, secondary, and college levels.

FEDDER, RUTH. *Guiding Homeroom and Club Activities*. New York 18: McGraw-Hill Book Co. 1949. 487 pp. \$4.50. In this book the author meets the needs of teachers and club sponsors who are faced with the problem of developing a group program in home room or club. It explains the sponsor's role in the group, gives a step-by-step analysis of the techniques used to develop a group program,

discusses methods of evaluating group work so that it may continuously improve, and describes the administrative set-up necessary for the success of the program in the school or social agency.

Built on real situations, the book describes the growth and problems of actual clubs and home rooms. The author introduces the student to the actual boys and girls who make up the ninth-grade home room, explains in simple terms why adolescents behave as they do, discusses the way in which the leader's personality and methods of work determine what happens in a group, and then tells the story of the ninth-grade home room from their first meeting of the year throughout their four years together in high school. There are separate chapters presenting a detailed story of a boys' club and a girls' club, with emphasis on the techniques used to develop the group program; discussing methods of evaluating group work; and describing the administrative set-up necessary in the school in which this type of group work can best develop.

GRAY, W. S. *On Their Own in Reading*. Chicago 11: Scott, Foresman and Co. 1948. 284 pp. \$2.00. Dr. Gray has long recognized that one of the fundamental pedagogical problems of reading instruction is the problem of word perception—a problem which, despite his own signal efforts in offering a systematic program, is still curiously obscured by much emotional confusion and “blatherskiting.” This book is a clear and comprehensive attempt to suggest the solution—and thereby “to give children independence in attacking new words.”

Part one concerns itself with “Basic Ideas and Valid Practices,” describes briefly various points of view responsible for word-perception practices popularized from time to time, analyzes basic methods of word perception, and describes them in detail. Part two presents “A Sequential Program,” which establishes five “application levels.” Each application level is identified by goals, essential skills and understandings, and classroom procedures. The treatment of skills and understandings needed for successful use of the dictionary, the fifth application level, is probably the clearest and most coherent analysis of this complex cluster of basic skills which has been provided to date for the classroom teacher.

HAVIGHURST, R. J., and TABA, HILDA. *Adolescent Character and Personality*. New York 16: John Wiley and Sons. 1949. 325 pp. \$4.00. This book gives specific attention to an intensive analysis of character in 16-year-old boys and girls. It is a preliminary report growing out of studies made on all youths in “Prairie City” who were 16 years old in 1942. The investigation was conducted by the Committee on Human Development of the University of Chicago, a group which consists of members from various departments relating to the development of children and adults—biology, physiology, nutrition, pediatrics, psychiatry, anthropology, sociology, education, and psychology.

“Prairie City” is the fictitious name of a real midwestern town, with a population between 5,000 and 10,000. There is nothing outstanding about the town, no unique industry, no tourist attraction, no abnormal concentration of racial minorities. A few of the people are rich, some are poor, and the majority is in-between. This makes “Prairie-City” an ideal testing ground for investigation of

the factors in human development, and of typical environmental conditions under which most American children grow to adulthood.

In making these studies, the Committee used a variety of sociological and psychological techniques, administered by specialists in their various fields. This volume, then, will interest all who seek a scientific approach to the problem of the development of moral character.

HUNT, H. K. *Training Through Latin*. Melbourne, Australia: Melbourne University Press, 1948. 186 pp. 15 shillings. This book was written for students in education at the University of Melbourne as a basis for discussion. It analyzes some of the processes of classical study so as to show what the effect of training in the processes should be. The second part discusses principles and details of method.

KANDEL, I. L. *The Impact of the War Upon American Education*. Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1948. 293 pp. \$4.25. Dr. Kandel's discussion of present-day education examines the deficiencies disclosed by the new demands made upon educational institutions during the Second World War. Careful attention is given to the crisis resulting from the exodus of teachers from schools for war service or war industries; to the movement for Federal aid and its need; to the shortages discovered in areas of study which public schools professed to teach; and to the threatened disappearance in higher education of traditional studies not necessary for winning the war.

As teachers continued to leave the profession to enter war industries, the nation began to realize the inadequacies of the salaries paid them, but postwar developments have proved that the American public has not yet recognized the key position of the teacher in giving reality to the ideal of equality of educational opportunity for all—an ideal still far from achievement.

In a critical analysis of liberal education, the author shows the way in which Yale, Princeton, and Harvard, among others, have defined liberal education and the manner in which they are attempting to make it effective. An account of non-military education as it was handled by the army and navy is followed by a discussion of the plans for veteran education, the G. I. Bill, and a post-hostilities program put into operation by the armed forces. This program, including a wide range of educational facilities, culminated in the four Army University Centers abroad.

KOHN, C. F., editor. *Geographic Approaches to Social Education*. Wash. 6, D. C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1201 16th St., N. W. 1949. 316 pp. \$2.50, paperback; \$3.00, clothbound. The Yearbook is a co-operative endeavor of the National Council for the Social Studies and the National Council of Geography Teachers. It was planned by individuals from each organization and was discussed in preliminary form at the annual meetings of these organizations. It has been prepared to aid in the task of appraisal and redefinition of the goals of geography. Classroom teachers, supervisors, and administrators in the elementary and secondary schools will find this book useful as they attempt to make the essential facts of geography function in the daily lives of young citizens. The points of view expressed will, of course, have to be adapted to a particular teaching

situation. Teachers in a democratic, noncentralized system of education are, fortunately, still free to select those materials and methods which are best suited to their communities and to their own personality and training. It is doubtful if any teacher will agree with everything in this Yearbook; some will disagree strongly at many points. Teachers, whether newly inducted into the profession or with years of successful experience, will find, however, a great many thought-provoking ideas. The Yearbook will serve a most valuable function if it causes all of us to think more seriously about the place of geography in the school curriculum.

Part I is devoted to general goals and objectives as conceived by leading geographers in this country. It sets forth the basic ideas with which geography now deals. Part II focuses attention on the more specific objectives of geographic study. The reader is here introduced to the physical and economic content of geography. Part III deals with the tools that are available to attain the general and special objectives outlined in Parts I and II. The kinds of experiences which should be provided to gain a geographic point of view are outlined in Part IV for the elementary school and Part V for the secondary school. The needed experiences in a teacher education program are discussed in Part VI.

LATON, A. D., and POWERS, S. R. *New Directions in Science Teaching*. New York 18: McGraw-Hill Book Co. 1949. 176 pp. \$2.50. This book describes and interprets the experiences of a widespread group of teachers who co-operated with the Bureau of Educational Research in Science in applying current educational theory to the education of youth in senior high schools. It presents accounts of what alert, forward-looking teachers have done under regular classroom conditions. The new departures are new both in presentation and treatment of materials. Every effort was made to take account of recent advances in educational theory and science, including researches in growth and development of children, use of community resources, the learning process, and group planning. The book includes a wealth of suggestions for projects, reading, field work, and other student activities.

LEE, MABEL, and WAGNER, M. M. *Fundamentals of Body Mechanics and Conditioning*. Philadelphia 5: W. B. Saunders Co. 1949. 389 pp. \$4.50. This book is written for the teacher in training who needs to learn how to sift and organize into a unified course the great amount of material available on body mechanics and conditioning, who needs experience in arranging a course with adequate emphasis and timing and with correct placement of divisions of subject matter, who needs guidance in the teaching methods peculiar to the activities of such a course, and who needs to learn how to give her pupils an understanding of the subject matter in its relation to everyday living.

The need for a course in the fundamentals of body mechanics and conditioning is discussed in Chapters I through III; subject matter for such a course is offered in Chapters IV through VIII; methods of offering the material, of evaluating classwork, and of safeguarding pupils are presented in Chapters IX and X; plans for organizing and conducting the course as a whole are taken up in Chapter XI; and suggested lesson plans are presented in Chapter XII.

Manual of Civilization. New York 1: William-Frederick Press, 313 West 35th St. 1949. 139 pp. \$2.50. The author, unidentified, presents this as "a digest of human experience."

MERSAND, JOSEPH. *The American Drama Since 1930*. Brooklyn: The Modern Chapbooks, Publishers, 284 Montauk Ave. 1949. 188 pp. \$2.00. This is a group of eight essays—four on playwrights and four on plays. The four dramatists discussed are George S. Kaufman, Elmer Rice, Clare Boothe, and Clifford Odets. The four on plays are "Two Decades of Biographical Plays," "The Drama of Social Significance," "When Ladies Write Plays," and "The Discovery of the Imagination."

MESSICK, J. D. *The Discretionary Powers of School Boards*. Durham, North Carolina: Duke University Press. 1949. 167 pp. \$3.00. What discretionary powers may a board of school directors exercise beyond that given by statute? What acts in the exercises of discretion may be considered beyond statutory provisions? What legal limitations are placed on the use of discretion in the administration of public schools? What constitutes an abuse of authority? What court decisions bear on such questions? The purpose of this book is to determine from numerous court decisions just what discretionary powers are vested in school boards, to see how far courts will allow school boards to exercise their honest judgment when there is no statutory edict, to formulate for school officials and teachers regulations whereby they may better be guided in their duties, and to safeguard school officials and teachers against an abuse of the power delegated to them.

National Education Association. *Proceedings of the Eighty-sixth Annual Meeting*. Wash. 6, D. C.: The Association. 1948. 463 pp. \$3.00. This volume 86 contains the addresses given before the representative assembly, the minutes of the business meetings, reports of departments, annual reports, and associational records and information of the 86th annual meeting of the National Education Association held in Cleveland, Ohio, July 5-9, 1948.

OBERTEUFFER, DELBERT. *School Health Education*. New York 16: Harper and Brothers. 1949. 415 pp. \$3.25. This is a comprehensive discussion of problems, techniques, and methods in school health education, written by one of the country's outstanding authorities in this field. It is a contribution not only for teachers and administrators already engaged in or concerned with school health activities and services, but also for college and university students who are planning to enter teaching, nursing, or medicine. The book covers three aspects of the subject. (1) It describes the attainable goals of school health education, sets forth briefly the problems which create the need for it, and outlines a complete health program. (2) It discusses in considerable detail instructional techniques and courses of study organization, including an important chapter on the integrated program which is new to such books. Another chapter is devoted to the resources available to the teacher of health education. (3) Health activities and services are treated at length: appraisal programs, disease controls, mental hygiene, nutrition activities, programs for handicapped children, the safety program, etc. The book concludes with helpful discussions of policies in school health and policies for personnel and community inter-relationships.

O'NEIL, J. M. *Religion and Education Under the Constitution*. New York 16: Harper and Brothers. 1949. 350 pp. \$4.00. The author analyzes the recent court decisions relating to religion and interprets the historic intent of the Constitution on the separation of church and state. The author contends that the greatest obstacle encountered today in the field of civil liberties is the widespread failure to understand rather than an informed but evil purpose. He states, "Unless the American people stop the current trend, exemplified in the Supreme Court decision in the McCullum case and force a return to the doctrines of democratic decisions and of the Constitution as written and ratified by the American people, we shall drift inevitably into a regimented society under the unrestrained dictatorship of the men on the Supreme bench."

OTTO, H. J. *Principles of Elementary Education*. New York 16: Rinehart and Co. 1949. 446 pp. \$4.00. This book represents an introductory overview of the field of elementary education. Its primary purpose is to orient the reader to fundamental issues, ideas, and concepts regarding the education of children, of elementary-school age. Although the author, in writing this volume, was directing his thinking primarily at college undergraduates taking their beginning course in elementary education, he hopes that the book will also be helpful to teachers, principals, and supervisors in service who wish to re-examine their own convictions and practices and to compare them with modern concepts in elementary education.

POOLEY, R. C., and WILLIAM, R. D. *The Teaching of English in Wisconsin*. Madison, Wis.: The University of Wisconsin Press. 1948. 212 pp. \$3.75. This is a report of a survey of the methods and materials of instruction and of teaching personnel in the elementary and secondary schools of the State of Wisconsin during the school year 1944-45. The report is divided into three major parts: Part I, "Introduction;" Part II, "Instruction in the Elementary Schools;" and Part III, "Instruction in the Junior and Senior High Schools." In the elementary and secondary parts of the report, the teacher, the curriculum, procedures and materials used are reported upon. This is followed by an evaluation of teaching and a summary and recommendations.

SEALOCK, R. B., and SEELY, P. A. *Bibliography of Place Name Literature*. Chicago: American Library Association. 1948. 331 pp. \$4.50. This book should be of considerable interest to those working in the fields of geography, history, and some of the other social sciences. It covers the United States, Canada, Alaska, and Newfoundland and helps in the location of books, magazine articles, and some manuscripts dealing with the origins, meanings, spellings, and pronunciations of place names, place nicknames, mountains, regions, rivers, etc. A detailed index makes it possible to locate information on various types of names as those of Indian or foreign language origin.

STIMSON, DOROTHY. *Scientists and Amateurs*. New York 21: Henry Schuman. 1948. 283 pp. \$4.00. This is the first authoritative book for the general reader to tell the absorbing story of the world's oldest scientific body in continuous existence—the Royal Society of London. All of the Royal Society's important history

is here, from its chartering in 1662, in that brilliant age when England was building the foundations for great scientific advances, down to the present day. Here are colorful word portraits of some of the greatest scientific pioneers of all time, early members of the Royal Society in what was truly an Age of Genius—among them Robert Boyle, Isaac Newton, Christopher Wren, Edmund Halley, and Robert Hooke—men whose names are familiar to every high-school boy, men who helped to introduce systematic experiment into science. In later periods we find among the Society's diverse membership such figures as Pepys the diarist, Cotton Mather, Benjamin Franklin, Humphry Davy, Joseph Banks, John D. Rockefeller, and Princess Elizabeth.

STONEMAN, M. A.; BROADY, K. O.; and BRAINARD, A. D. *Planning and Modernizing the School Plant*. Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press. 1949. 340 pp. \$3.50. This book is intended to guide and assist school administrators and board of education members in analyzing and solving their school plant problems. Building problems can never be separated from problems of finance, attendance areas, district organization, curriculum, and community needs. It is believed that educational workers primarily concerned with some of these problems related to the school plant field can profit from a consideration of the interrelationships indicated herein.

The writers of this book are aware that in some respects the building problems, as the curriculum and other problems, of the small school are similar if not identical to those found in the larger community. It is their intent, in the present publication, to present suggestions and recommendations which apply in some instances in which the best practices are determined to some extent by the fact that the schools concerned are small. Chapters included are: The School Survey, General Education Needs of a Community, Community Characteristics Affecting School Plants, School Plant Characteristics in Small Community, Standards for Combination Rooms, Determining Building Needs in a Specific Community, Steps in Evaluating Existing School Plants, Improvement of Building Site and Exterior, Bringing Service Systems up to Standard, Other Phases of Renovation and Repair, and A Look Ahead.

STRANG, RUTH. *Counseling Technics in College and Secondary School*. New York 16: Harper and Brothers. 1949. 313 pp. \$4.00. The ten years since the first edition of this book was published have witnessed and extraordinary development in both theory and practice of counseling technics in education. This revised edition has been thoroughly reworked and expanded to include these developments. Dr. Strang has added much new illustrative material demonstrating the value of the technics described and the use of case studies, personal documents, interviews, and records of observation. Special attention is given to the problem of interpreting the reliability and validity of various technics. The author emphasizes throughout the importance of a positive, constructive attitude on the part of the counselor, and an intelligent and flexible use of technics. The book is designed as a manual for background use in actual counseling practice. It will be of great service to all teachers, counselors, and students who wish to keep step with the recent developments in the field.

TEAD, ORDWAY. *College Teaching and College Learning*. New Haven: Yale University Press. 1949. 66 pp. \$2.00. This book is a guide and manual designed for those who intend to go into teaching as well as for those already engaged in it or in college administration. Its prime object is to reinstate this profession which has fallen on evil days, in its high place as a matter of first importance to the individual and to the nation; and to point out specific means by which its day-to-day service can be rendered more effectual than it is. The author is concerned with four aspects of his general theme—the ineffectuality of the teacher—considering the teacher as a person; as a teacher; the nature of learning; and the possibilities of improvement of both teaching and learning processes.

TUTTLE, H. S. *Dynamic Psychology and Conduct*. New York 16: Harper and Brothers. 1949. 462 pp. \$3.50. This book fills a gap which has existed in the field of educational literature—the need for guidance in training children and youth in wholesome social adjustment and co-operative civic behavior. It describes in simple and nontechnical language the recent principles of dynamic psychology as they apply to behavior guidance of normal children and provides an interpretation of controlled experiments in conditioning attitudes and interests. Rewards and punishments, satisfactions and annoyances are fully discussed, as are the results of experiments applied to problems of school and home discipline, character training, and personality development. This book should be of special interest to all who are concerned with the guidance of children and youth, especially teachers, school officials, and social workers.

YAUCH, W. A. *Improving Human Relations in School Administration*. New York 16: Harper and Brothers. 1949. 400 pp. \$3.50. This book is directed to superintendents of schools, principals, and teachers as a guide to the improvement of educational leadership and personal associations in school systems and individual schools. Writing out of wide experience both as teacher and school administrator, the author deals here with the numerous concrete situations which arise in the relations of teachers and administrators, stressing the importance of democratic leadership as opposed to autocratic command. He discusses in detail such specific problems as teachers' meetings, curriculum planning, the several functions of the principal as a group leader, and the resolution of conflicts with teachers and parents.

YEAGER, W. A. *Administration and the Pupil*. New York 16: Harper and Brothers. 1949. 503 pp. \$3.75. There is probably no more significant movement in modern education than the broadened concept of the school's responsibility for adequate preparation of children and youth for full participation in social and economic life according to "the American way." This book is devoted exclusively to the nature and scope of these new educational services as an essential administrative function. It is important not only for everyone concerned with administration in elementary and secondary schools, but also for college students studying school administration.

The exposition begins with a full discussion of the nature and social basis of the pupil personnel function and then takes up all the responsibilities and services which are properly a part of it: problems of admission, classification,

and promotion and services relevant to providing a broad and satisfying educational program adapted to varying capacities and interests; school environment, school control, the guidance service, clinical procedures, the evaluation program, and responsibilities of home and community.

Youth, Communication and Libraries. Chicago: American Library Association. 1949. 233 pp. \$3.50. This book is composed of papers and discussion at the University of Chicago's 1947 Library Institute. Sixteen contributors, library and nonlibrary specialists in the children's, young people's, and school fields, discuss critical issues, recent developments, and new directions in library work with children and youth. They examine the means for attaining an integrated program to meet the social, educational, and cultural needs of young people. The contributors point up these needs and the opportunities for service with which they challenge libraries and schools.

Books For Pupil and Teacher Use

ADAMS, A. E., and WALKER, E. E. *Living in the City.* New York 18: McGraw-Hill Book Co. 1949. 224 pp. \$1.96. This is an interesting discussion of city life and problems, understandable to junior high-school and high-school students. This book offers a colorful picture of the important aspects and problems of city living, such as local government, food and housing, transportation, recreation, schools, and water supply. It provides information that will help the student understand his immediate environment and give him present and future guidance. It seeks to interpret our complex social organization, social changes, and trends. The book's outline and subtopics offer a framework for the student's investigation of his own city. A special chapter exercise—"The Chapter You Are to Write"—suggests material in each chapter which the student should investigate in writing about his home city or the city nearest his home.

BATHURST, E. G. *Your Life in the Country.* New York 18: McGraw-Hill Book Co. 1948. 407 pp. \$2.80. Sound business practices for the prospective young farmer are described in this book, one in a series of publications prepared by the Consumer Education Study of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, a department of the National Education Association. The book is presented as both a "story and study" of the consumer problems which confront a rural family. Through the experiences of one family dealing with consumer problems, it dramatizes the problems of rural young people. The wide range of consumer topics covered in the book includes family, community, and school activities; income management on the farm; and using and spending money wisely. Emphasis in the book is placed on the concept of "farming as a way of living as well as a way of making a living." The publication stresses values in richer life for rural young people who intelligently use the resources of the farm and illustrates ways in which these resources may be utilized. The book includes extensive listings of U. S. Department of Agriculture bulletins and other inexpensive publications related to farm life.

BEARD, W. P. *Starting to Farm.* Danville, Illinois: The Interstate Printers and Publishers, Inc. 1948. 265 pp. This book is designed as a handbook for pupils who are starting to farm through vocational agriculture. The first part, ten chapters,

acquaints the pupils with the objectives and advantages of and the problems in carrying on a supervised farming program. Later chapters deal with making job plans, setting up standards for a farming program, keeping the records, carrying out the program, and "Looking Ahead." The book may be used as the basic reference. Subject matter dealing with the various farm enterprises can be tied to the supervised projects carried by the pupils.

BELL, M. E. *The Totem Casts a Shadow*. New York 16: William Morrow and Co. 1949. 222 pp. \$2.50. Florence Monroe lived with her pioneer family in a remote Alaskan settlement where the sole neighbors were Haida Indians. Only a narrow cove lay between the houses of the Indians and the Monroes, but immeasurably divergent ways of life set up a barrier harder to cross. Florence's stubborn Scottish father had no wish to cross it and had forbidden his family to make such an attempt. But the atmosphere of an alien heritage drifted like smoke from the homes behind the totem poles to his own.

BOWEN, B. M. *Jan's Victory*. New York 3: Longmans, Green, and Co. 1949. 169 pp. \$2.50. A Dutch family comes home to Walcheren Island two years after the end of World War II to find almost total destruction from the bombs and floodings by friends as well as enemies. The bitterness and resentment of war-torn peoples is portrayed vividly in the oldest son, Jan, who takes the lead in rebuilding but is overwhelmed by the almost impossible task. The children of Vlissingen love the village carpenter and his music, but Jan, suspecting him of collaboration with the enemy and blaming him for the death of the father, lost trying to save him, makes the carpenter the target of his resentment. Jan's struggle to regain sanity and happiness in a confused and half-ruined world is the main theme of the story, and in the end he finds peace and a happiness in his love for Lotje.

BUTTERS, D. G. *Enchanted Caravan*. Philadelphia 2: Macrae-Smith Co. 1949. 208 pp. \$2.50. This is a gay and amusing story of adventures of a group on a bus. Principals are Jeremy Peel who drove the bus, his daughter, Reuben, who had hidden in the bus, and the artist who painted the bus. The adventures of these people, even including a circus as they go from town to town, make interesting reading for teen-agers.

CHENNAULT, C. L. *Way of a Fighter*. New York 19: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1949. 397 pp. \$4.50. This is a fighting book by a fighting man, for Claire Chennault's whole life has been spent battling, either in the field or for the ideas in which he believes. Chennault knows war. He knows the potentialities of air power. He knows China. And he knows America. He is a true exponent of the new air age. He and his men hung up records which have never been equaled in the annals of aerial warfare, and the whole world knows the achievements of the Flying Tigers, which are, perhaps, best summed up in the words of Winston Churchill: "The victories of these Americans over the rice paddies of Burma are comparable in character, if not in scope, with those won by the RAF over the hop fields of Kent in the Battle of Britain." In the final section, and in an up-to-the-minute foreword, General Chennault deals with the tragic happenings in China since the end of the war and lashes out unsparingly at the vacillating

role the United States had played. He also gives an eloquent presentation of what we must do to preserve China and all Asia from falling into the grip of Communist totalitarianism.

CHERIOLI, JOSEPHINE. *Beauty Culture, Its Science and Practice*. Milwaukee 1:

The Bruce Publishing Co. 1949. 315 pp. \$3.00. This volume presents information for training personnel in the field of beauty culture by presenting all phases of beauty service with various methods for doing each phase. It is written for the average person in easy to understand language. It covers the history and subjects related to all practical subjects on the care of the skin, hair, and nails. It also presents information on business practices, safety, and first aid. Divided into four sections, the book treats the history, practice on hair, practice on skin, and business practice. Numerous illustrations and charts clarify the textual material.

COLBURN, D. J. *Language Skills: Advance Course*. New York 17: Harcourt, Brace,

and Co. 1949. 576 pp. \$2.12. This textbook about writing in the high school is organized under three major headings: "The Craft of Writing" (nine chapters), "Revision" (eight chapters), and "The Management of Sentences" (four chapters). Throughout the book, the writing exercises are followed by class discussion containing the techniques and objectives of revision. To demonstrate the values and satisfactions of revisions, first and final drafts of several student compositions are presented. Throughout the book emphasis is placed on finding materials, putting them together, and then revising.

COOK, L. B.; LOBAN, WALTER; *et al.* *The World Through Literature*. New York

17: Harcourt, Brace, and Co. 1949. 768 pp. \$3.28. This grade 12 course in the *Living Literature Series* seeks to acquaint students with the character and culture of foreign peoples as revealed in their literature and combines, in one volume, a study of world literature and a study of English literature. The first five units contain selections, primarily modern, from five large cultural areas: the East, Scandinavia, Latin America, continental Europe, and the British Isles of today. The second half contains a full representation of seventeen major English writers—the substance of any high-school course in English literature. These seventeen writers are the great figures in our literary heritage. The selections from their work are the traditional masterpieces which teachers expect in any survey book. The reduction in space for modern British writers is more than made up by the modern writing from elsewhere in the world. More than usual attention is given in this book to the major British writers as individuals. The introduction to each writer sets him forth as a man living among men, as a flesh-and-blood reality. A few of these introductory essays are brief, but most of them are longer, more detailed, and more graphic than such introductions can be in the conventional English literature textbook. In these essays, the author is placed in his times so that it becomes clear how historical and social forces affected his writing and, thus, the course of English literature and culture. This kind of background material is less formal, less mechanical, and far less remote and difficult for both academic and general students than the traditional literary history. Selections are of reasonable reading difficulty throughout, so that the

book may be used with both general and academic students. Footnotes and explanatory materials are unusually complete. This "two-in-one" text furnishes a practical solution to the problem of finding a place for both English literature and world literature in the crowded high-school curriculum.

COSTAIN, T. B. *The Moneyman*. New York: Sun Dial Press. Thomas B. Costain's story is set in fifteenth-century France—the France of King Charles VII, of Agnes Sorel, the king's mistress, and of Jacques Coeur, the king's moneyman. Born a commoner in 1395, Jacques Coeur was a man of astonishing ability and vision. As history's first great merchant prince, he built up trade between France and the Levant until his wealth was the greatest that had ever been amassed by a private citizen. But Coeur wanted more than mere wealth. He wanted to raise the social level of all classes, to replace war between nations with world trade. In 1436 Charles VII summoned Coeur to his court. There his successes continued. In close liaison with the wise and beautiful Agnes Sorel, Coeur directed the war against the English, even advancing large sums from his personal fortune to help drive the enemy from Normandy. When the health of the king's mistress began to fail, it was Coeur who chose the sixteen-year-old Valerie to succeed her, not realizing that the choice would weave the first strands in a fatal net of love and intrigue. The nobility of Charles' court, many of whom were in debt to Jacques Coeur, could not forgive the great, humanistic patriot for the popularity which became his as the war progressed. They resented equally his successes and his ideals. Powerful figures in the French court joined in a conspiracy against him.

FENNER, P. R. *Horses, Horses, Horses*. New York 17: Franklin Watts, Inc. 1949. 285 pp. \$2.50. Here are eighteen good horse stories. A few have been taken from some of the best books by well-known authors. Some have been taken from magazines and have never been in book form before. There is much variety in this collection, going all the way from the well-told story of Alexander and Bucephalus to one about some orphan children who save the old plough horse. There is horse racing with variety, too; a cutter race in a New Hampshire snowstorm; a lusty race between stallions; a Saratoga race story. There are stories of wild horses in which no people darken the pages and stories of wild horses tamed by a loving master.

DARINGER, H. F. *Pilgrim Kate*. New York 17: Harcourt, Brace, and Co. 1949. 252 pp. \$2.50. Fifteen-year-old Kate was quite content with her life in Scrooby as long as she could spend much of her time out of doors, helping with the apple gathering, wandering through the meadows, or chasing rabbits. Her older sister Meg had suddenly grown too dignified for all this, choosing to bide indoors with her distaff and embroidery frame, and Kate suspected it was all the fault of Gervase Neville who was courting Meg. Busy with her new-found friends, Felicity and Hugh Fitzhugh, Kate did not at first realize that Meg had changed in other ways as well. But when Meg defied her father for the first time in her life and joined the small congregation who wished to separate from the King's Church and who held services in secret at Scrooby Manor, Kate felt as though she no longer knew her own sister. Instead of a closely-knit family, Kate now

felt there were undercurrents too deep for her understanding, and she resented it. Then Gerry Neville went with the first group of separatists who tried to reach Holland, and Meg gave him her promise to wait for him. Slowly, as she learned of the hardships and sacrifices of these brave people, Kate began to understand what they believed in so passionately, and by the time her father and mother had decided they too must leave their home in England for a new life in Holland, Kate was prepared. This is history come alive.

DEFOE, DANIEL. *Robinson Crusoe*. Garden City, New York: Garden City Publishing Co. 1949. *Robinson Crusoe* is perhaps the most widely known adventure story in the English language. It is the tale of a young Englishman who goes to sea and is shipwrecked on a lonely and deserted island where he spends twenty-eight years in exile. The ingenuity with which Robinson Crusoe manages to build a home and provide himself with food and comfort has intrigued generations of young and old readers, and the excitement of his discovery of other humans on the island and his rescue of a cannibal sacrifice has seldom been equaled. The name of the unfortunate man he rescues is well known, for "my man, Friday" is an expression which has long since passed into the English language.

DUSOE, R. C. *Sea Boots*. New York 3: Longmans, Green, and Co. 1949. 186 pp. \$2.50. In this story, the author portrays the hazards of deep-sea fishing off the coast of lower California. The sea is in the blood of the fisherman's weatherwise and quick-eyed son, and young Pedro stows away on the clipper *White Star*. His hiding place is revealed next morning by the monkey Zippo, but Captain Mike finally says he may ship with the crew. The storms, the rescue at sea, the fight between a swordfish and a whale, the mystery of a fisherman's attack on the captain are some of the incidents in an exciting adventure story of a brave boy and his learning to battle the giant fish of the deep.

HANSON, E. P. *New Worlds Emerging*. New York 16: Duell, Sloan and Pearce. 1949. 405 pp. \$3.50. This book demonstrates that the opening-up of new frontiers—where undeveloped lands offer physical expansion and undeveloped peoples offer economic expansion—goes forward every day. It shows how romantic and dangerous notions about climate and about the inferiority of certain races are yielding to the pressure of five powerful forces: (1) the possibility of a truly global World War III, (2) overpopulation, (3) the revolt of the colored races, (4) world-wide breakdown of the "colonial" system, and (5) capitalism's search for new outlets, new customers.

HAWTHORNE, HILDEGARDE. *His Country Was the World*. New York 3: Longmans, Green, and Co. 1949. 249 pp. \$2.50. In this biography pertinent facts and influences in Tom Paine's life are skillfully brought into focus. They are presented with insight, force, and, at times, humor. Paine believed there was something for him outside this native English village, but not much is known of his early life. He shipped as a sailor in 1756, but a year later he was in London working in the shop of a staymaker, a trade learned from his father. He attended lectures and studied nights; in time he became an exciseman. Whatever happened to him, wherever he went, he seemed to stretch the minds

of men and widen their horizons. There was always something more for him to do, writing, talking, working on his inventions; and he left behind him for all the vision of a free world. The story of his life is full of meaning for the present.

HAWTHORNE, NATHANIEL. *The House of the Seven Gables*. New York 10: Globe Book Co. 1949. 222 pp. \$1.60. This novel holds a story of knowledge and pleasure that is a part of every American's heritage. The adaptation retains the atmosphere of the story in the spirit and literary style of Hawthorne, but with cumbersome material eliminated, vocabulary simplified, and sentences shortened. Delightful and mysterious, this narrative will enable the young reader to meet an old writer well worth meeting.

HILL, ELEANOR. *Tumbleweed Boy*. New York 10: Friendship Press. 1949. 144 pp. \$1.75. Colly Harper, the teen-age hero of this story, knows the thrills and the disappointments that are a part of the daily life of thousands of boys and girls who with their families help to harvest our country's crops. With his father and mother, his brother Jay, twelve years old and undersized, and his three-year-old sister Pet, Colly moves from camp to camp, working in the fields, making friends both in the camps and in near-by communities only to lose them time after time. The reader of this vivid story shares Colly's excitement during the baseball tournament and the fun of the party at the camp center, understands how Colly feels when suitcases are unexpectedly dragged out for another move, sees why he compares himself to a tumbleweed rolling over the western prairies.

ISAACS, JULIUS. *Oath of Devotion*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Co. 1949. 337 pp. \$4.50. This book, by a former New York city magistrate, is in part the inspiring story of his own life; in part a vivid record of the city he has loved; in part an account of the Fusion Administration, embodying perhaps the most revealing portrait of Fiorello H. LaGuardia ever written. It tells of a career unusual for its variety and constant interest, unique for its inception and meaning. For Judge Isaacs, on graduating from the College of the City of New York, had taken the Ephebic Oath, pledging himself to good citizenship and service—and meaning what he swore.

JAMES, MARQUIS. *The Raven*. Garden City, New York: Halcyon House. 1949. Wherever Sam Houston went, whatever Sam Houston did, he was the most spectacular figure in a spectacular era. His range of activity was enormous. That tall, powerful frame, from fine Virginia parentage, rose to the top along many lines. He was our greatest pioneer figure; he was among our ablest statesmen; he was a shrewd and daring soldier; and he was the romantic ideal to a nation of women.

KING, GLADYS. *Asi Se Dice*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. 1949. 256 pp. \$1.48. Students come to the study of a language wanting to talk it and to use it outside of school, as well as in class, as much as they can. They are curious about how to express their own thoughts in the new language. They are eager to say what they have to say. No basal textbook, with its necessary restricted vocabulary, can begin to satisfy the student's desire to express himself on many topics of

his everyday life. What he needs, in addition to the textbook, is a practical handbook or dictionary. This Spanish book with words grouped according to specific topics has been prepared to fill this need. It has been prepared to motivate students' practical use of the language and to satisfy their desire to express themselves on everyday topics.

KIRKELL, M. H., and SCHAFFNIT, I. K. *Partners All—Places All!* New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Co. 1949. 129 pp. \$3.95. Written particularly for beginning dance enthusiasts and leaders, this book fills a need for simple, yet detailed instructions for dances of every sort. There is a wide variety of groupings and formations, 54 square and folk dances—circles, longways, straight lines, and squares. There are mixers, play-party games, dances where no partners are needed, and easy dances for couples, threes, and fours—all arranged in order from the simplest to the most complex. *Partners All—Places All!* is so designed that the music, the "calls," and the coaching instructions for any given dance will all be before the leader's eye at the same time. Simple piano arrangements of the music are on right-hand pages, along with illustrations. The "calls" or "patter" of the square dance leader are on left-hand pages. Parallel to these verses are thumbnail directions (with diagrams and illustrations), so that the leader can check and correct mistakes among the dancers. Appropriate records, which can be used in place of the piano, are listed by title and number for each dance.

KISER, M. G. *Gay Melody*. New York 3: Longmans, Green, and Co. 1949. 222 pp. \$2.50. Melody at seventeen feels she must be serious and sets out to win an appointment to teach Brier's Nest school. The story has delightful humor and Melody will have the sympathy of young readers in trying to solve her problems. The children at the school appeal to her and she longs to bring fun into their drab lives and teach them how to improve conditions. She has a warm friendship with Louisa May Alcott. One of Louisa's helpful projects brings near disaster one afternoon in school. In the end, of course, Melody wins the day. In the telling of the story, Mrs. Kiser has brought many customs to the attention of young readers and has given, as well, a warm and sincere picture of simple family life in Massachusetts.

KNIGHT, P. E., and TRAXLER, A. E. *Read and Comprehend*, Revised. New York: D. C. Heath and Co. 1949. 312 pp. \$2.20. The text is designed to help high-school pupils improve their ability to read, with comprehension and appreciation, what they are assigned in school courses and what they read outside of school. The development of the various skills needed to do a good job of reading newspapers, short stories, poems, social studies books—even telephone books and indexes—are stressed. It offers four ways through which reading success may be secured. (1) A course in developmental reading for all students in grades 9 through 12 may be organized around the activities suggested in this book. (2) Group corrective instruction for students somewhat retarded in their reading ability may be set up with this book as the basic text. (3) Individual remedial work for students who are greatly handicapped in reading may be based on the suggestions contained in this book. (4) Work on special problems of

reading—for example, improvement of reading rate—may be selected from the varied materials in this text.

LEVINGER, E. E. *Albert Einstein*. New York 18: Julian Messner. 1949. 174 pp. \$2.75. This biography of the world's greatest living scientist is the absorbing story of a boy who hated school because he could not ask "why" and of the man who, when asked to explain his theory of relativity, offered to play the violin which he felt sure his questinor would appreciate much more and understand much better. While he was working as a clerk in the Patent Office in Switzerland, Albert Einstein began writing the scientific essays which later were to bring him world fame. But it was his paper on relativity—his astonishing new formula that gave to the word the fourth dimension and explained why the sun could send out light and heat for billions of years without burning itself out that won him the greatest acclaim and for which he was awarded the Nobel Prize. Forty years later the world was stunned by the enormous results of his theory—scientists following other clues of atomic energy learned to transform the uranium into energy—and made the atom bomb. Hitler burned Einstein's essays, along with Heine's great lyrics and books by Helen Keller and Jack London; offered \$5000 to anyone who would assassinate him; and confiscated his lovely home and his bank account. But the rest of the world honored him above all men.

LEWIS, SINCLAIR. *The God-Seeker*. New York 22: Random House. 1949. 422 pp. \$3.50. Having won the Nobel Prize some years ago with a formidable group of savagely satiric novels, America's great storyteller has now written a novel of the coming to maturity in frontier Minnesota of a young missionary out of New England. Fired by the promptings of his conscience, torn by the insistent demands of the flesh, stimulated by the emotional and intellectual urge of religious fervor, he plays a heroic part in the rugged drama of pioneer life.

LIPMAN, M. C., and TRESSLER, J. C. *Business English in Action*. Boston 16: D. C. Heath and Co. 1949. 546 pp. \$2.80. This basal text is divided into two parts: a language activities section which treats fully of both writing and speaking in a great variety of business situations and a 155-page handbook which provides drill as needed on grammar, punctuation, and spelling, and serves as a reference book on correct usage. Speaking and writing on the job are presented under classified topics which focus learning on specific business applications. Interesting and practical activities are given to fix learning and to develop skills through participation. Eight diagnostic and remedial tests are presented at intervals. Attention is given consistently to such important topics as good manners in business conversation, the art of getting along pleasantly with superiors, co-workers and customers, personal appearance, and mental health. Vocational objectives have been kept in mind throughout. The book was developed through ten years of classroom trial in preparing students for business employment.

MACDONALD, Z. K. *Marcia, Private Secretary*. New York 18: Julian Messner. 1949. 216 pp. \$2.50. Marcia Lee decided long before she was graduated from high school that she wanted to be a private secretary and earn her own living right away. With high hopes and a driving ambition, Marcia went to New York, but

she soon learned that a private secretary has to know a great deal more than shorthand and typing. She made the rounds of the employment agencies, and she finally landed a job as stenographer in a big corporation, but she lost it almost immediately through her own carelessness. Her money was getting low and she was afraid she'd have to admit defeat and go back home. To make matters worse, Mel began paying too much attention to Marcia's roommate. Mel had come to New York to attend Christopher College, and it was here that Marcia at last found her niche as assistant to Miss Gill, secretary to the Curator of Christopherana.

MALVERN, GLADYS. *Eric's Girls*. New York 18: Julian Messner. 1949. 244 pp. \$2.50. A romance of Old New York in the days of Peter Stuyvesant when Nieuw Amsterdam was a thriving town of 300 dwellings and a delightful picture of the early Dutch settlers who never played cards, never fox-hunted, and danced only once a year around the Maypole. But they dearly loved to bowl and they loved the klappernye when everyone went strolling and visiting from stoep to stoep, talking about the weather, the Long Island trouble, the Indians, and the fishing, hunting, and berry picking which were, of course, against the law on Sunday. Henrietta and Janie Sparrow had never seen a big city in all their lives. And when they persuaded their father, Eric, to sell their Connecticut farm and move to the city of Nieuw Amsterdam, they were wide-eyed at the bustle and elegance of the Dutch town.

MATSUMOTO, TORU. *The Seven Stars*. New York 10: Friendship Press. 1949. 224 pp. \$2.50. This is the story of seven high-school boys in Japan who made a pledge always to stick together—like the stars of the Big Dipper. The narrative, rich in lively discussions of the important issues of the day, covers the significant years from 1928 to 1947 and is a vivid portrayal of the life, thoughts, and attitudes of seven young men during these critical decades. Toru Matsumoto is well known as co-author of *A Brother Is a Stranger*.

McWILLIAMS, CAREY. *North From Mexico*. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1949. 324 pp. \$4.00. There is excitement and urgency in this electrifying record of a vital and unique chapter in American history. Starting with the days of roaming, swashbuckling Spanish explorers, long before the permanent English settlements in North America, the story comes down through the era of the great northward migrations to the present day. In effect, this book provides an industrial, agricultural, and social coverage of the Southwest. From that corner of our country have come powerful influences upon American language, art, and life. In its crucible have been stirred many of the volatile elements that have fused in our national character. The 2,500,000 Spanish-speaking Americans made an excellent contribution to the nation's effort in World War II, yet there remain problems of race discrimination still to be solved.

MEADOWCROFT, E. L. *By Secret Railway*. New York 16: Thomas Y. Crowell Co. 1948. 275 pp. \$3.00. When David Morgan decided that school was a waste of time in a city as exciting as Chicago in 1860 he set out to get a job on the bustling, noisy waterfront. He didn't get the job, but he met Jim. That chance en-

counter with a young colored boy led David into strange and thrilling adventures which took him far from home, involved him in the mysteries of the "Underground Railroad," and ended with his meeting President-elect Abraham Lincoln, whom David had long wanted to see for a particular reason.

MOFFITT, V. M. *The Jayhawker*. Boston 8: L. C. Page and Co. 1949. 289 pp. \$2.50.

An adventure story for boys which girls, too, will read and enjoy. The setting is Texas about the year 1862, when Confederate wagon trains followed three main routes through Texas to Mexico, and streams of cotton caravans traveled over these trails. Along the lonely way there were hardship and adventure for the intrepid freighters, who braved weather, Indians, and raiding bands of jayhawkers, an ever present menace, on the long trek to Mexico. Brett, the young hero of this story, a boy in his early teens, had been rescued from the Indians by Rancher Morris and his good wife, only to be lured away by one Christopher Dawn, a fascinating stranger. During his days of captivity, Brett underwent many hairbreadth adventures and tests of courage and proved himself a real man whom *The Jayhawker* and his outlaw followers were forced to admire.

MORRELL, M. M. "Young Hickory," *The Life and Times of President James K.*

Polk. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Co. 1949. 381 pp. \$4.50. James K. Polk of Tennessee emerges from the pages of this biography as a great warm-hearted American and one of the outstanding statesmen to come from the South. His story and that of his delightful wife will charm all those readers who enjoy a recreation of an interesting period of American life. With keen insight Mrs. Morrell pictures a figure, neglected and little known to most of us, who stands forth as a courageous, far-sighted national leader in one of the stormiest eras of American history. As an intimate of "Old Hickory" Andrew Jackson, as Governor of Tennessee, as Speaker of the House of Representatives, and as President of the United States, James K. Polk proved his ability to rise above narrow factionalism and to follow decisive policies. In the Presidency he faced the growing national split on the slavery issue and brought to a decision the accession of the Texas and Oregon territories. In the war with Mexico his policies resulted in final victory for the United States.

NIEMAN, E. W., and SALT, G. E. *Pleasure in Literature*. New York 17: Harcourt,

Brace, and Co. 1949. 668 pp. \$2.92. This ninth-grade book deals with human values and human relations and treats literature as a living experience. The major objective of the book is to expand the student's experience by widely expanding his reading. It opens with an inventory of previous reading and provides a form on which the student may show what kinds of reading he has pursued. It also provides a record form on which the student may note the books he reads during the year. At every point he sees the special values that different literary types can offer him. The three interchapters are a part of the plan to expand student reading experience. They are armed to appeal to certain special interests of ninth-grade students. "Books into Movies" calls student attention to the enormous debt of movie-makers to good books. The suggestion is made that a story that makes a good movie will also make a good book. A second interchapter, "News About Books," capitalizes on the normal interest in things new and directs the

student to a new kind of reading, the book review. There are eight units in the book, each closed by a preview—a complete narrative incident or section of a book. Word study and vocabulary building are included in the study materials following individual selections. The function of the book is to show the student the wide scope of reading pleasure and where to find the books he will enjoy.

NOLAN, J. C. *Andrew Jackson*. New York 18: Julian Messner. 1949. 178 pp. \$2.75.

Andrew Jackson was the first "people's president." Son of a poor struggling Carolina farmer, he rose from obscurity and poverty by his wits, duelling pistols, and fists, attained wealth and power, and became the seventh President of the United States. Andy's father died before he was born, and he lost his mother and two older brothers during the Revolution. His mother had wanted him to be a preacher and taught him to read before he was nine years old but, after her death, there was no one to encourage or guide the lonely boy. His education was haphazard and he drifted from one thing to another until at last he decided to study law. As the people's war hero, he was swept into the Presidency where he served for two terms, ruling with an iron hand but beloved by his followers.

OEHSER, P. H. *Sons of Science*. New York 21: Henry Schuman. 1949. 238 pp.

\$4.00. This book provides the answer to the question of people who all their lives have known the name "Smithsonian"—"Just what is the Smithsonian Institution?" It orients the reader or the visitor to Washington who knows Smithsonian as one of the nation's landmarks. He is led to an old red-stone, cathedral-like building which is called the Smithsonian; he visits the magnificent National Gallery of Art nearby and the Freer Art Gallery, and is told that these, also, are a part of the Smithsonian; he goes out to the Zoo in Rock Creek Park and learns that this National Zoological Park, too, is under Smithsonian direction. And he discovers to his further surprise that seven or eight additional important "bureaus" fall within the Smithsonian family.

REDDICK, D. C. *Journalism and the School Paper*. Boston 16: D. C. Heath and Co.

1949. 429 pp. \$2.40. This book (third edition) is a text containing information necessary for students of journalism and for the staff of a high-school paper. After giving an overview of the newspaper profession, the author introduces the student to the details of a reporter's work, guides him through the specialized forms of newspaper writing, and instructs him in both the mechanical and business phases of newspaper work. The text is usable for high-school journalism courses for grades 9-12 and is an aid to the newspaper staff in schools where there is no journalism course. The author presents and solves practical problems that arise in the publication of a high-school newspaper. Typical examples of student journalism have been chosen from papers all over the country. This third edition incorporates the most recent trends and developments in high-school journalism.

RICHMOND, S. S. *Career Plays for Young People*. Boston 16: Plays, Inc., 8 Arlington St. 1949. 350 pp. \$3.50. This book contains 30 modern, royalty-free vocational guidance plays dramatizing a variety of careers for young people. The

plays were written to help young people understand the requirements and possibilities of certain vocations and to point out to them the necessity of weighing their own assets and liabilities before choosing their careers. Each play dramatizes an occupational problem and points up pertinent information. The situations are realistic and the information reliable and timely, but the occupational material is never permitted to obscure the action of the play. These dramas are fascinating to read and to act. They have true-to-life characters, the sets are simple but effective, and the plots are dramatic and vital.

ROEHM, A. W., *et al.* *The Record of Mankind*. Boston 16: D. C. Heath and Co. 1949. 762 pp. \$3.60. In this book, special recognition is given to religious development, to the impact of science and industry on civilization, to most recent atomic energy developments, to modern philosophy, to military history placed in proper perspective, to the United Nations, to the great revolutionary or freedom movements, and to a fair, objective account of the place of Russia and communism in today's world. To give the student studying world history the most important events at a glance, there is, in the Appendix, a 14-page table of significant dates in world history. Here events are classified in three groups, for quick comparison: (1) Political and Military; (2) Industrial, Agricultural, and Commercial; (3) Intellectual, Religious, Humanitarian. Carefully designed by experienced teachers, these are exceedingly helpful to both student and teacher. Thought questions and factual questions are combined in a single grouping so that the former are less likely to be ignored. Activities and readings are listed at the end of each part rather than at the end of each chapter. This brings out the unity and cohesion of the subject matter and will help the pupil keep the large ideas in focus. The bibliographies are geared to the high-school level; the easier titles are indicated, and they are up to date. Bibliographies were prepared under the guidance of a high-school librarian who has had long experience in advising young readers. A workbook will be ready for class use in the fall of 1949.

ROSS, FRANK, JR. *Young People's Book of Jet Propulsion*. New York 16: Robert M. McBride and Co. 1948. 126 pp. \$2.75. Here, in the first volume of its kind ever published, is the remarkable story of American jet and rocket-powered aircraft—the most revolutionary development in aviation since the Wright brothers' first flight at Kitty Hawk. For the host of boys who have a talent for engineering, for young men who are planning a career in the world of aeronautics, for all young people who have a lively interest in what is happening in our modern world, this book will be appealing.

SCHORLING, RALEIGH; SMITH, R. R.; and CLARK, J. R. *Algebra: First Course*. Yonkers-on-Hudson 5, New York: World Book Co. 1949. 416 pp. \$1.92. In this text definitions, principles, and processes are originated from numerous and simple mathematical experiences. New material is introduced by a carefully guided inductive process that gives the student a chance to think it through and get the meaning as well as the method. In these, and in many other ways, this text reflects the modern trends in algebra teaching. The emphasis in the drill program seems to be on the parallel development of understanding of the

basic concepts on the one hand and proficiency in the skills and techniques of algebra on the other. Explanations are usually reinforced by a few simple and interesting applications. This serves to underscore the functional aspect of algebra.

SCHURZ, W. L. *Latin America*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Co. 1949. 386 pp.

\$4.50. This is a thoroughly revised edition of the author's former book on the twenty Latin American countries. While retaining the outstanding value of the original edition, it incorporates the many changes which have taken place in the last eight years in history, population, government, economics and industry, production and transportation. It includes the latest tables and charts. The author's descriptive survey of the geography, history, people, economy, customs, and politics of Latin America is the result of over thirty years of travel, observation, and study. It is a presentation of the more permanent elements in Latin-American life, stressing at the same time the trends away from traditional patterns. The reader is not confused by a separate description of each of the twenty republics. Factors of differentiation are given their proper place, and the feature common to all the republics or to groups of them are emphasized.

SCOTT, J. U. *Manners for Moderns*. Philadelphia 2: Macrae Smith Co. 1949. 207

pp. \$2.50. Good manners are not just for girls, or just for boys. Manners differ in detail for each sex, but their common objective is to make daily association easy and enjoyable. Here, in one book, are the guides to social success for both girls and boys which may be read by either, for a better understanding of the rules that make for popularity, respect, and gracious living.

SHAFTER, HELEN. *How Personalities Grow*. Bloomington, Illinois: McKnight and

McKnight. 1949. 256 pp. \$3.00. This book is about emotional behavior as it affects individual personalities. It includes a chapter on the sex problem and offers practical suggestions for a wholesome adjustment to this difficult situation. The book makes clear how and why personalities differ or are similar. It emphasizes the importance of personality factors and how they may be improved for a fuller enjoyment of life.

SMITH, E. T. *Exploring Biology*. New York 17: Harcourt, Brace, and Co. 1949.

619 pp. \$3.28. This third edition differs from its predecessors in several ways. Each change is dictated by the dynamics of our times. The most important changes are these: (1) The discussion of the chemical nature of many life processes has been expanded considerably in this edition. (2) A unit on human physiology has been introduced to give the student a full understanding of that most interesting of all topics—his own body. It also puts a solid, scientific foundation under the health unit which follows. (3) An entirely new problem has been added which emphasizes the importance of recognizing the early symptoms and of seeking early diagnosis of cancer and heart disease, the two chief killers in our nation today. (4) The dangers involved in the exposure of any part of the human body and particularly the reproductive cells to radiation—from atom bombs, from X-rays and radium, from radioisotopes—are discussed in connection with human heredity. (5) A discussion of the emerging synthetic

theory of evolution has been added to the unit on evolution. This theory is a synthesis and broad extension of the older natural selection and mutation theories. (6) The discussion of the economic importance of insects has been included with that of their taxonomy, early in the course, to make this material more seasonal at the time of study. (7) The conservation unit has been rewritten around ecological principles and placed at the end of the course to give it added emphasis.

This new edition, like its two predecessors, aims to present biology in such a way that it will function in the everyday living of every student who studies it. It aims, further, to help the student understanding himself and his changing world. The unit-problem plan of organization has been retained, with its emphasis upon the mastery of basic understandings rather than mere memorization of innumerable details. As before, the technical vocabulary has been kept at a minimum. The aim has been to include only those technical terms that are repeatedly useful in the course or will be of value to the student in his later life. Furthermore, this text introduces a new term only after a preliminary discussion; where feasible, some student activities prepare the way to an understanding of each new term. To make the student aware of the importance of terminology "A Word About Words" has been introduced into this text at an early point.

SNADER, D. W. *Algebra, Meaning and Mastery*. Book I. Philadelphia 7: The John C. Winston Co. 1949. 512 pp. \$2.20. Through a novel yet practical presentation, it makes algebra appealing, even enjoyable for any high-school student who possesses a knowledge of the fundamental operations of arithmetic. The principal aims of the book are: (1) to present insofar as possible new concepts and skills of algebra as extensions of similar concepts and skills used in arithmetic; (2) to develop each new topic in the light of past experience of the student; and (3) to provide material, technique, and organization whereby the student discovers new quantitative relationships and learns how to formulate basic rules which are algebraic in nature. The transition from arithmetic to algebra is made easy by the use of the Snader way. Many cases are followed by problems. The "function" concept is all important and the "meaning theory" of both arithmetic and algebra is utilized. Students will like the thirty-seven page unit devoted to algebra as an international language. Vocabulary is developed by a demonstrative process, where taught, to participate in the technique of translating words, phrases, and sentences into algebraic symbols and symbolic statements into word language. Included are interpretation and problems for graphs, charts, pictographs; a section on statistical averages; presentation of the slide rule, and the significance of the mean, mode, and median.

STERN, BILL. *Favorite Football Stories*. Garden City, New York: Garden City Publishing Co. 1949. This is Bill Stern Broadcasting on a coast-to-coast hookup atop any football stadium from New York to California. This is your seat on the 50-yard line, and your ticket entitles you to some of the greatest football stories in the history of the gridiron as related by the ace broadcaster of America's sport.

STEPHENS, ROGER. *Down That Pan American Highway*. New York 6: The author, 143 Liberty St. 1948. 352 pp. \$7.50. You can travel from the Rio Grande River to the Panama Canal at "carfare" expense only \$100.65 according to this book. Here is a 2500-mile trip of picturesque scenic country from Laredo, Texas, to the northern limits of Costa Rica, passing through Mexico, Guatemala, El Salvador, Honduras, and Nicaragua on the way down. There are 1280 miles of good highways from the Rio Grande to Juchitan in southern Mexico, than with your car on the Northern Railways you travel 245 miles to Tapachula, and from here you travel another 1,000 miles on an all-weather highway to the border of Costa Rica. You can (in the dry season from October to May) take an additional 268 miles from La Cruz to San Isidoro del General. But this is not the road for wheeled traffic, for from here to Volcan, Panama, lies only jungles and a ravine-torn wilderness, passable only afoot or by horse and mule. But you can fly to David, 38 miles south of Volcan, and go by bus from David to the Panama Canal, a distance of 337 miles. The actual minimum time on the road from Texas to the Canal is about two weeks. The author has written extensively about this trip in his book—the day-to-day experiences that will be encountered. He has given helpful, practical hints for those who desire to follow his route. While a real guide to those who plan such a trip, the book is interestingly written and will prove quite fruitful reading for those who desire to learn about this part of the world—its climate, its physical characteristics, and its people and their customs and mode of living.

THOMPSON, M. W. *Hillhaven*. New York 3: Longmans, Green and Co. 1949. 286 pp. \$2.50. Trudy Wescott, new occupational therapist at Hillhaven Hospital, is involved not only in the problems of adjusting to her work and to those she is helping to rehabilitate, but also in the recovery of her little sister, injured by a hit-and-run driver. Through the work she loves, Trudy really grows up, becoming more mature in her relations with the patients and her superiors on the hospital staff. There is fine opportunity for the give and take between Trudy and her patients, children and adults, and there are many scenes to interest young readers: crochety old Nick; the little boys, one co-operative, the other nonresponsive; the young father who cannot bear waiting to go back to his work; and the talented Emily, who is to be Trudy's friend.

TOLG, M. R. *Homemaking Can Be Easy*. New York 17: Franklin Watts, Inc. 1949. 95 pp. \$2.50. The author, one of the nation's leading young home economists, with illustrations and text, covers time budgets, room arrangements, planned housekeeping, washing and ironing clothes, kitchen management, and meal planning. In addition, there are several sections devoted to methods of insuring home safety for young and old, first aid, and organizations of a maid's time.

TUNIS, J. R. *Son of the Valley*. New York 16: William Morrow and Co. 1949. 192 pp. \$2.50. The farm at Cat Creek had belonged to the Heiskell family ever since the first Heiskell crossed over from North Carolina to Tennessee in colonial times. Then came the great Tennessee Valley Authority dams, and the Heiskells' farm was in a region due to be flooded. TVA would provide them with another farm, neither better nor worse than the old one, but their grief and resentment

over losing their home turned into cold anger against the government and everything it stood for. Johnny alone was curious as well as angry. He wanted to know about the new ways of farming taught by the county agent and what connection there was between the TVA dam and possible improvement of the miserable Heiskell acres. Gradually his anger changed to wholehearted co-operation. He was violently opposed by the neighbors, with their old-fashioned ideas, and even by his own father. He had to shoulder a load of responsibility heavier than any sixteen-year-old should carry and it almost broke him.

UCHIDA, YOSHIKO. *The Dancing Kettle*. New York 17: Harcourt, Brace, and Co. 1949. 184 pp. \$2.25. Here are fourteen authentic folk stories, retold with humor and charm, which will delight those who read and tell stories. Some of them have appeared in other collections now out of print; some are quite unknown to young readers in this country.

ULMAN, RUTH, editor. *University Debaters' Annual: 1947-1948*. New York 52: H. W. Wilson Co. 1948. 325 pp. This is the thirty-fourth volume in the *University Debaters' Annual* series, previously edited by Edith M. Phelps. The annual contains reports of collegiate debating activities of the past academic year; representative types of debates, forums, and round-table discussions on significant questions are included. Of the forensic events reported in the current yearbook, one was heard on a local radio program, and another was heard in the British Isles through the facilities of the British Broadcasting Corporation. Eight events are: Federal World Government, The Marshall Plan, Anglo-American Alliance, The Church in World Affairs, Universal Military Training, State Socialism and Democracy, Compulsory Arbitration of Labor Disputes, and Federal Security Planning. Each has an introduction, a summary of the arguments, the speeches of one college debate and rebuttal speeches, and a bibliography.

The Waldorf-Astoria Manuals, Vol. III. Stamford, Conn.: Dahl Publishing Co. 1949. 222 pp. \$4.00. This manual was prepared primarily for the benefit of the Waldorf's own employees in *restaurants and room service*. It is also made available to employees of other departments who are interested in the practices and procedures that insure good food service. It contains full job analyses for each position from restaurant and club manager to bus boy; instructions for superior food service; dining room department. It also includes organization charts and all important forms used by these employees as well as descriptions of the home kitchen and employee food service. Also available at the same price are *Hotel Management*, *Front Office and Clerk's Service*, etc., Vol. I; and *Communications and Uniformed Service*, Vol. II.

WARD, E. G.; LODGE, EVAN; and FINCH, MILDRED. *Steps to Language Power*. New York 16: Harper and Brothers. 1949. 394 pp. \$2.40. For practical purposes, the book has been set up in three sections, each of the first two presenting the work for a separate semester. Part I follows the simple sentence through various single-word and phrase modifiers. It includes a series of reading lessons and a chapter on the simple composition forms, units of which might be used at different times in the semester. Part II presents the complex and compound sen-

tences with other chapters showing applications of sentence knowledge to paragraph and composition building, to the oral reading of prose and poetry, and to speaking and listening problems. Parts of these later chapters (chapters 10 and 12) should be found useful during the first semester. Part III gives in alphabetical form for easy reference a more formal presentation of grammatical material than in the first two years. The book offers plenty of exercise and test materials.

WARNER, G. S. *Pop Warner's Book for Boys*. New York 16: Dodd, Mead and Co. 1945. 326 pp. \$3.00. This book answering questions a young aspiring athlete asks about football, baseball, basketball, and track has been revised and brought up to date in its sports rules and practices while retaining the fine traditions of Glenn S. Warner, one of the greatest of athletic coaches. The originator of the Wing-back System in football, "Pop" Warner has passed on his ideas and ideals to countless young men all over our nation for nearly half a century. Pop tells about the best kind of exercises to build up muscle and to develop skill in games. He shows the kinds of practice that a boy can do in his own back yard. He makes it possible for boys who lack close contact with trained coaches to learn the fundamentals of playing their favorite game—and playing it right.

WELSHIMER, HELEN. *The Questions Girls Ask*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Co. 1949. 154 pp. \$2.00. The pressures of life have increased; education and social standards have changed. Some of these changes have been needed, necessary, and good. A few have caused some alarm, even serious concern. This revision has been made to provide a helpful book to teen-agers today. In this book somewhat different problems affecting personality development, social adjustment, family, social and community relationships are discussed in a person-to-person, intimate way which contribute so much to the popularity and success of a course of this nature. It has been estimated that fifty per cent of all patients who consult physicians become ill from the stress and strain of life on their personalities. Mismanaged emotions reveal themselves in such symptoms as misbehavior, prejudice, anti-social acts, fear, and suspicion. Frustration, insecurity, hostility, disappointment cause mental and emotional ill health. This book may be a real help here, for it discusses frankly and wisely the alternatives which life offers to girls at this difficult and crucial time in their development as a person. It places before the individual reader certain accepted "rules" by which a young person may be guided so that she may become the kind of person that in her secret heart she undoubtedly wishes to be and that she most admires within her particular circle of grown-ups.

WINFIELD, G. F. *China: The Land and the People*. New York 19: William Sloane Associates. 1948. 437 pp. \$5.00. This book presents for the general reader a complete assemblage of the basic facts and truths about modern China. In all the controversy concerning the problem of China, one truth has been consistently obvious: the controversy itself has been carried on largely in ignorance of the facts determining the plight of China. They are here presented in dramatic and comprehensive form, and the author has gone to the very roots of Chinese life for his explanations. In Part I the author presents, with a unique authority based

on thirteen years of research on the spot and an intimate, living knowledge of China's language and people, a survey of her culture, geography, industry, agriculture, economy, resources, health, education, language, government, and society. The picture that emerges is of a huge, ancient, and vicious circle of cause and effect, of one problem aggravated by another, and also a picture of human patience in the face of disaster that is almost beyond American understanding. Part II, building solidly on the facts surveyed in Part I, outlines a long-range program for China's reconstruction as a sound, contributing member of the world community of nations. The future of China is of immediate concern to that community of nations and of personal, legitimately selfish interest to every American. If China is to remain dismembered, disease-ridden, and impoverished, with approximately 500 million persons starving on the produce of three fifths the amount of arable land available to 140 million Americans, she will inevitably continue to breed war and misery.

WOOD, VIOLET. *In the Direction of Dreams*. New York 10: Friendship Press. 1949. 175 pp. \$1.50. From hundreds of stories that might be told about Christian young people who today are carrying into action their Christian ideals through volunteer service, eleven have been selected for inclusion in this book. Each story is a lively, true-to-life narrative that demonstrates what can happen, both to the young people themselves and to other people, when a group go to work together to meet some urgent human need. The stories move from a New York State migrant center to war-torn Europe, from an isolated spot in the Ozarks to Chicago's crowded streets, from the wide stretches of Texas to a Virginia or Kansas town, from an industrial center like Hartford, Connecticut, or Brantford, Ontario, across the border into Mexico, and beyond the mainland into Puerto Rico. Each story gives evidence of how Christians can, if they will, work with others in the direction of their dreams.

Pamphlets for Pupil and Teacher Use

American History Atlas. New York 21: C. S. Hammond and Co., 305 E. 63rd St. 1948. 36 pp. 50c. A chronological arrangement of maps portraying the growth of the United States from a wilderness settlement to an influential member of the world's nations. Superimposed on the written history and pictorial charts is the geographical interpretation of the evolution of American civilization. For individual use to supplement textbook.

Annual Digest of State and Federal Labor Legislation. Washington, D. C.: Supt. of Doc., U. S. Gov. Print. Off. 1949. 22 pp. 10c (25% discount on 100 or more). A digest of Federal and state labor legislation enacted from Sept. 1, 1947, to Nov. 15, 1948, during which time workmen's compensation and child labor held the limelight.

Atomic Energy and Conventional Armaments. Washington, D. C.: Supt. of Doc., U. S. Gov. Print. Off. 1949. 57 pp. 20c. Selected statements and U. N. resolutions regarding atomic energy issues and reduction of armaments.

Atomic Energy Development. Washington, D. C.: Supt. of Doc., U. S. Gov. Print. Off. 1949. 213 pp. 45c. A review of the production, military application, research in physical and biological and medical sciences, public and technical information

service, the security program, finance, personnel, patents and inventions of the Atomic Energy Commission.

Atomic Energy Here to Stay. Washington, D. C.: Supt. of Doc., U. S. Gov. Print. Off. March 1949. 12 pp. 10c. Education's responsibility in atomic energy education for learning experiences in schools and for reaching out into the community. List of references to books and pamphlets and audio-visual materials.

BOTE, G. S., and LAIRD, D. S. *Roddy the Rat.* Gainesville, Fla.: Project in Applied Economics, College of Education, Univ. of Florida. 1949. 72 pp. 15c. (20% discount on 25 or more). A story of how typhus fever is spread by flea-bearing rats and how houses must be rat-proofed to control this disease. An interesting and forceful approach that is informative about diseases carried and destruction wrought by rats. Gives a plan of action for eradication.

The Bulletin. Lansing, Mich.: Michigan Secondary-School Association. Feb., 1949. 16 pp. Problems in the development of adequate high-school libraries.

Business as a Career. New York 3: Bureau of Public Information, New York, Univ., Washington Square. 1949 (Rev.). 63 pp. Discussed are twenty-one fields of business ranging from accounting to the teaching of business subjects. A special feature is a chart which portrays the fourteen basic activities in business and typical positions in the particular fields.

A Camping Experience for Older Youth. Lansing, Mich.: Supt. of Public Instruction. 1948. 23 pp. An account of a demonstration school camp for high-school students and teachers held at Chief Monday Camp, Yankee Springs Recreation Area, Middleville, Michigan, Nov. 27 to Dec. 3, 1948, by the State Department of Public Instruction in co-operation with the State Department of Conservation, the Kellogg Foundation, and schools participating in the Camping and Outdoor Education Study.

CARROLL, J. S. *An Annual Report of Services Rendered.* San Diego, Calif.: Supt. of Schools, San Diego County, 209 Civic Center. 1949. A brief history of education in San Diego County is included to commemorate the centennial year, but the greater portion of the report is devoted to the varied services of the district. Original and interesting presentation of statistics, personnel, business services, schoolhouse planning, transportation, Indian education, placement services, legislation, citizen and professional organizations, publications, research, library service, audio-visual services, special education, camping experiences, etc. Charts, photographs, drawings, and diagrams add interest, emphasis, and ready understanding.

Charter of the United Nations. Washington, D. C.: Dept. of State. 85 pp. Contains texts of the Charter and also the Statute of the International Court of Justice.

Citizenship U.S.A. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Dept. of Justice. 1949. 16 pp. The proclamation of the President for "I Am An American Day" plus quotations and remarks on the significance of U. S. citizenship.

The Congressman and the Oracle. Washington, D. C.: National Council Against Conscription, 1013 18th St., N. W. 50 for \$1.00. An expose of public opinion polls on Universal Military Training.

Conservation Education for All. Laramie, Wyo.: John W. Scott, Chairman of National Committee on Policies in Conservation Education, 1409 Garfield St. 1949. 4 pp. One and one-half cents in quantities. A classified list of references and their sources on many areas of conservation for various grade levels and for teachers themselves.

A Course of Study in English for Experimental Use. Chicago: Div. of Curric. Development, Board of Education. 1948. 124 pp. A plan of instruction in English for the second semester of the twelfth grade in the Chicago system, which, by co-ordinated practical application to all forms of communication, aims to achieve a desirable combination of knowledge, skill, evaluative ability, and appreciation.

For Fundamental Human Rights. Lake Success, N. Y.: Dept. of Pub. Information, United Nations. 1948. 126 pp. An account of the work of the United Nations "in promoting and encouraging respect for human rights and for fundamental freedoms for all without distinction as to race, sex, language, or religion."

FRANK, JOSETTE. *Comics, Radio, Movies—and Children*. New York 16: Public Affairs Committee, 22 E. 33th St. 1949. 32 pp. 20c. A discussion of the appeal and the impact of the barrage of these varied media upon children and a concise program of "what to do" for parents, teachers, and community.

GANS, ROMA. *Reading Is Fun*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia Univ. 1949. 51 pp. 60c. How parents may aid in setting a reading pattern, developing interests, helping beginners over vocabulary hurdles, and encouraging a critical selectivity of reading materials.

Guide to the Study of the Curriculum in the Secondary Schools of Illinois. Springfield, Ill.: Supt. of Public Instruction, Ill. Sec.-Sch. Curriculum Program. 1948. 42 pp. A backward look and a forward look at the secondary-school curriculum of Illinois.

Health Bulletin for Teachers. New York: Metropolitan Life Insurance Co. Feb., 1949. 4 pp. Free. The story of blood from the time of Harvey's discovery of circulation to the present era of the identification of the Rh factor, fractionation, and blood sludges.

Helping the Teacher of English Through Supervision. Chicago 21: The National Council of Teachers of English, 211 W. 68th St. 1949. 62 pp. Mimeo. 50c. The principles and practices of supervision which seem most likely to be helpful to teachers of the language arts and to all those who share in the co-operative endeavor of giving youth creative and constructive leadership. Presents supervision as a democratic process involving all persons interested in making the teaching of English more effective and more vitalized. Gives role of specialist and principal.

Human Rights and Genocide. Washington, D. C.: Supt. of Doc., U. S. Gov. Print. Off. 1949. 52 pp. 15c. Contains, along with other selected statements, the text of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and a speech delivered at the Sorbonne in Paris by Eleanor Roosevelt on Sept. 28, 1948.

HYMES, J. L. JR. *Being a Good Parent*. New York City: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia Univ. 1949. 52 pp. Directed to both parents and teachers, but more especially to parents. A look at parental attitudes toward

their growing children. Clues to better teamwork between father and mother and between them and teachers.

- HYMES, J. L. *How to Tell Your Child About Sex*. New York 16: Public Affairs Committee, 22 E. 38th St. 1949. 32 pp. Provides simple answers to natural and specific questions children ask about sex and reproduction. Advocates natural use of sex-organ vocabulary and frank and full answers to satisfy a growing curiosity to develop normal and healthful attitudes toward the role of sex in life.
- Institutes on Professional and Public Relations*. Washington, D. C.: Div. of Field Service, NEA, 1201 16th St., N. W., 1949. 31 pp. The 1948 report of the institutes which for eleven years have brought together educators and laymen to discuss and put into motion better professional and public relations.
- International Control of Atomic Energy—Policy at the Crossroads*. Washington, D. C.: Supt. of Doc., U. S. Gov. Print. Off. 1948. 251 pp. 45c. A summary record of policy developments concerning the international control of atomic energy.
- International Economic Problems*. Washington, D. C.: Supt. of Doc., U. S. Gov. Print. Off.: 1949. 35 pp. 10c. The remarks of Williard L. Thorp and resolutions concerning the Economic and Social Council's report before the United Nations General Assembly in Paris in the autumn of 1948.
- KIRKENDALL, L. A., and OSBORNE, R. F. *Dating Days*. Chicago: Science Research Associates, 228 S. Wabash Ave. 1949. 48 pp. A basic and practical approach to getting off on the right foot in boy-girl relationships and growing into maturity.
- Korea*. Washington, D. C.: Supt. of Doc., U. S. Gov. Print. Off. 1948. 124 pp. 25c. A report of the Dept. of State on political developments and economic resources with selected documents concerning Korea.
- KUDER, G. F., and PAULSON, B. B. *Discovering Your Real Interests*. Chicago: Science Research Associates, 228 S. Wabash Ave. 1949. 48 pp. An aid to helping young people discover their real interests, develop them, and use them, and to discover new ones.
- Legislative Report*. Washington, D. C.: Bureau of Labor Standards, U. S. Dept. of Labor. March 1, 1949. 64 pp. A semi-monthly summary of current state and national legislation on child labor, industrial relations, wages and hours, and workmen's compensation.
- Let's Do Something About Conservation*. Los Angeles: Los Angeles County Supt. of Schools. 1949. 19 pp. Memorable quotations, reading lists, suggested audio-visual aids, and learning experiences for the secondary classroom for the observance of Conservation Week in March and for year-round attention.
- Let's Look at the Student Council*. Detroit 2: The Citizenship Education Study, 436 Merrick Ave. 1949. 12 pp. 25c. Points out that the citizenship values of Student Councils are not self-starting or self-perpetuating; that the values are achieved only by careful planning, skillful teaching, and realistic appraisal.
- The Lieutenant Has a Miracle*. Washington, D. C.: National Council Against Conscription, 1013 18th St., N. W. 50 for \$1.00. A description of the Fort Knox experiment which categorizes claims that the "New Army" is a miracle of good character education as propaganda.

- McFARLAND, J. W., and UMSTATTD, J. G. *The Home Room in 215 Texas Secondary Schools*. Austin, Texas: The Texas Study of Secondary Education, Texas Assn. of Sec.-Sch. Prin. 1949. 18 pp. A study of the purposes, programs, activities, functions, values, defects, and teachers of the home room.
- MENNINGER, W. C. *Understanding Yourself*. Chicago: Science Research Associates, 228 S. Wabash Ave. 1948. 52 pp. A simple explanation for young people of why they behave as they do, with chapters on getting help and preventing trouble in the areas of emotional adjustment and mental hygiene.
- The Miracle of America*. New York 19: The Advertising Council, Inc., 25 W. 45th St. 1949. 19 pp. One of a number of public information programs designed to serve the best interests of Americans—a simple and chatty story of our economic structure.
- Monthly Review*. Washington, D. C.: Immigration and Naturalization Service, Dept. of Justice. Feb., 1949. 10c. Contains an address to new citizens on citizenship and the remarks of the Attorney General of the United States at the Rededication Exercises at Gettysburg as well as laws, court decisions, and material pertaining to the administration of the immigration laws.
- MORGAN, HAYDN. *Choruses for Gleemen*. Chicago 5: Hall and McCreary Company, 434 S. Wabash Ave. 1948. 64 pp. 1-11, 60c each, postpaid; 12-49, 54c each, postpaid; 50 or more, 48c each, transportation extra. Unison, two-part, three-part, and four-part arrangements of art songs, folk songs, songs of sentiment, sacred selections, secular numbers, and humorous medleys for male voices, suitable for various types of organization and occasions.
- Must We Have Food Surpluses?* Washington, D. C.: National Planning Assn., 800 21st St., N. W. 1949. 48 pp. 50c. An Agriculture Committee report in the form of a roundtable warning to farmers, consumers, and national policy makers to eat potential food surpluses, which already plague growers, to avert a serious farm depression.
- A National Oil Policy for the United States*. Washington, D. C.: National Petroleum Council, 601 Commonwealth Bldg., 1625 K St., N. W. 1949. 23 pp. 25c. A restudy of "A Petroleum Policy for the United States" at the request of the Secretary of the Interior to the petroleum industry. Deals with such topics as domestic oil, foreign oil, marginal oil, and oil in national security.
- New Evidence of the Militarization of America*. Washington, D. C.: National Council Against Conscription, 1013 18th St., N. W. 1949. 64 pp. Single copy, 25c; 6 for \$1.00; 100 for \$15.00; 1,000 for \$135.00. Illustrations of the expanding influence of the military arm in government that threatens the democratic institutions of the country.
- New 1948 Football Plays*. Leonia, N. J.: Wells Publishing Co., 252 Fort Lee Rd. 1948. 127 pp. 75c. Fundamentals, strategy, generalship, diagrams of new plays, pointers on plays, etc., by members of the American Football Coaches Assn.
- North Atlantic Treaty*. Washington, D. C.: Supt. of Documents, U. S. Gov. Print. Off. 1949. 5 pp. 5c. Text of the treaty's 14 articles.
- Official 1948 Guide for Amateur Softball*. Leonia, N. J.: Wells Pub. Co., 252 Fort Lee Rd. 1948. 127 pp. 50c. New rules and by-laws in effect for official softball

games. Prepared by the official Joint Rules Committee of the Amateur Softball Assn.

Official Score Guide for All Baseball Scorers—Simplified Box Score Book. Leonia, N. J.: Wells Pub. Co., 252 Fort Lee Rd. 1948. \$1.50. Large working surface, spiral binding, heavy paper, space for scoring 25 games. Scoring rules and instructions are included.

Old-Age Security for Farm People. Washington 6, D. C.: National Planning Assn., 800 21st St., N. W. 1949. 18 pp. Single copy free; \$10.00 per 100. A statement, largely in question and answer form, which condenses and summarizes for farm people the thinking of official and unofficial groups on the subject of old-age insurance, which is included in proposed legislation extending the coverage of the Social Security Act.

Organization Chart. Washington 25, D. C.: U. S. Atomic Energy Commission. 1949. A chart showing the organization of the Commission, with an analysis of the functions of each division and the name of its present head.

Organizing the Classroom for Mental Health. Phoenix, Ariz.: Union H. S. and Jr. Coll., Office of Research Services, 3010 N. 11th Ave. 1949. 16 pp. Illus. The contribution of democratic procedures, individual differences, socializing activities, counseling, and teacher adjustment to mental health of students.

An Outline of the Desirable Outcomes and Experiences in the Language Arts. Chicago 21: National Council of Teachers of English, 211 W. 68th St. 1949. Folder. Single copy, 10c; dozen, \$1.00; hundred, \$7.50. The ten areas that should be emphasized in the language arts in the opinion of the Curriculum Commission of the Council. Valuable for curriculum committees, workshops, in-service training groups, and parent-teacher meetings.

Outline of the Implementing Means to Peace and Liberty. Barboursville, W. Va.: The Tem Balecon Society. 1949. 15 for \$1.00. An enlargement of the statement that there is a trend toward the break-down of the capitalistic system throughout the world, and America is the only power upon which its continuation depends in the face of internal and external enemies. The principles advocated by the society in regard to taxation, national debt, etc.

Pedestrian Shorts. Washington, D. C.: Safety and Engineering Dept., American Automobile Assn., 17th and Penn. Ave. 1949. 16 pp. Safety slogans and pointers for use on radio, in newspaper boxes, for magazine features, in pay envelopes, on car cards, and as bases for pedestrian safety talks.

Planning Modern School Buildings. R. T. Gregg, ed. Madison, Wis.: Institute on School Buildings, School of Education, Univ. of Wis., attention of Prof. LeRoy Peterson. 1949. 72 pp. \$1.00. A discussion of philosophy and procedures related to planning, designing, constructing, and evaluating modern school plants.

Prevent World War III. New York: Society for the Prevention of World War III, 515 Madison Ave. March-April, 1949. 41 pp. Editorials, articles, and quotations dealing with such topics as the deportation case of Giesecking, cartels, remilitarization of Germany, free elections in Germany, the German mind four years after V-E Day.

Problems of Greece, Korea, and Palestine. Washington, D. C.: Office of Pub. Affairs, Div. of Publications, Dept. of State. 1949. 65 pp. Selected statements and U. N. resolutions concerning the threat to territorial integrity and conciliation. Largely remarks of John Foster Dulles and Philip C. Jessup.

The Program of the Institute of Inter-American Affairs. Washington, D. C.: The Institute of Inter-American Affairs. 1949. 27 pp. A statement of purpose, origins, present status, principles, procedures, and program of the Institute of Inter-American Affairs.

Promoting Growth in Reading. Tulsa, Okla.: Director of Curriculum, Board of Education. 1948. 190 pp. \$2.00. A guide for secondary-school teachers which is a significant contribution to the improvement of educational practices. It recognizes that every high-school teacher is a teacher of reading and that, if this essential skill is neglected, barriers are erected in the learning process.

Publications of the Department of State. Washington, D. C.: Office of Pub. Affairs, Div. of Publications, Dept. of State. Jan. 1, 1949. 24 pp. A semiannual list cumulative from Jan. 1, 1948.

Publications of the National Association of Manufacturers, 14 W. 49th St., New York 20, New York:

The American Triangle of Plenty

Beyond the Horizon

Facts About the NAM

Faith

The Free Enterprise System

Human Relations and Efficient Production

International Affairs and Our Internal Economy

The Leviathan of Inflation

Patents and Your Tomorrow

People vs. Rabbits

The Public Be Served

That New Labor Law

Who Profits from Profits

Your Future Is What You Make It

Your Opportunity in Management

Reappraising Our Immigration Policy. Philadelphia: The American Academy of Political and Social Science, 3817 Spruce St. March, 1949. \$2.00. Section headings are: Historic Aspects of Immigration, Demographic Factors in Immigration Policy, Assimilation of the Foreign Born, Current Immigration Problems. 'Together, they afford an authoritative perspective.'

The Record. Washington, D. C.: United States National Commission for UNESCO. Feb.-Mar., 1949. 32 pp. A view of the educational exchange program and of methods used to develop internationalism from the grass roots among secondary-school students.

Relief for Children. Washington, D. C.: Off. of Pub. Affairs, Div. of Publications, Dept. of State. 1949. 18 pp. Selected statements and U.N. resolutions. Contains

the remarks of Mrs. Franklin D. Roosevelt on "The International Children's Emergency Fund" and "United Nations Appeal for Children."

SANDERS, E. F., and GOLDSTEIN, PHILIP. *Practical Biology Workbook*. New York: D. Van Nostrand Co., 250 Fourth Ave. 1949. 130 pp. Designed to stimulate the interest and to lead to an understanding of the living world about the student and to arouse a consciousness of its interdependence. Provides both real and vicarious experiences geared to the textbook, *Practical Biology*. Serves as combination notebook, homework book, laboratory manual, and spur to extra assignments.

SAAVEDRA, DAVID. *A Project for Fighting Illiteracy in the World*. New York City: The author, 302 E. 31st St. 1949. 12 pp. A plan conceived after considerable travel in areas of a great percentage of illiteracy to combat this world problem and wastage of manpower.

SHILLING, JOHN. *Handbook for Secondary Schools*. Dover, Del.: State Dept. of Pub. Instruction. 1949. 50 pp. Sets forth Delaware's philosophy of secondary education, excerpts from school laws, legal requirements, principles governing organization, regulations regarding issuance of diplomas, advice about contests, etc., for ready use of administrators of secondary schools.

600 *Vital Anniversaries for 1949*. Pittsburgh 19, Pa.: Will Schoyer and Co., 304 Ross St. 1949. \$2.00. All the important centennials and anniversaries of the current year with paragraph backgrounds for use in planning civic observances, campaigns, publicity releases, pictures, speeches, etc.

SAYLOR, GALEN, et al. *Junior College Studies*. Lincoln, Nebr.: Teachers College, Univ. of Nebr. 1949. 124 pp. \$1.00. Studies concerning the statutory basis of the public junior college in the United States, the financing of public junior colleges, and the development of the public junior college in Nebraska.

SMITH, E. T. *Workbook to Accompany Exploring Biology*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Co. 1949. 154 pp. \$1.20. Detailed and specific directions for carrying out suggested activities beyond the study of the textbook to stimulate the pupil and to enable the teacher to conduct laboratory and field studies within an allotted time. Contains 77 punched worksheets and a test booklet.

Some of the Best Illinois High School Prose of 1948. Urbana, Ill.: Ill. Assn. of Tchrs. of Eng. Feb. 1949. 32 pp. 25c. A collection of student-written prose compiled from representative material submitted to the association during 1948.

SPARLING, E. J. *Civil Rights: Barometer of Democracy*. New York 10: Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith, 212 Fifth Ave. 1949. 48 pp. 25c. (Quantity rates: 50-99 copies, 23c; 100-199, 22c; 200 and over, 20c each.) Examines America's past performances in the area of civil rights and analyzes the four principal areas of civil rights highlighted by the President's Committee on Civil Rights—the right to equality of opportunity including education, the right to safety and security of person, the right to citizenship and its privileges, and the right of freedom of conscience and expression.

- SPEARS, HAROLD. *Some Principles of Teaching*. New York 11: Prentice-Hall, 70 Fifth Ave. 1949. 147 pp. \$1.25. A cleverly illustrated discussion of principles of teaching that lead to the road down the hill, out of the clouds, into the affairs of children, young people, and adults, among whom no artificial distinctions are recognized.
- State Aid to Local Governments*. Washington, D. C.: Bureau of the Census, Dept. of Commerce. Dec., 1948. 52 pp. An objective presentation of factual data regarding state aid to municipalities. Amounts to school districts are included in the tabulations.
- STEPHENS, D. C. *Pineville High Meets the Challenge*. Gainesville, Fla.: Project in Applied Economics, College of Education, Univ. of Florida. 1948. 53 pp. 15c (20% discount on 25 or more copies.) A story of the effects of hookworm and ways of treating and preventing the disease.
- STEWART, R. C. *Educational Personnel Data of the State Board Units and Special Districts of Delaware*. Dover, Del.: State Dept. of Public Instruction. 1949. 27 pp. A statistical report of the number, experience, educational level, certification, salaries, and turnover of teachers in Delaware.
- STONE, W. L. *The Field of Recreation*. New York: The William-Frederick Press, 313 W. 35th St. 1949. 41 pp. \$1.00. Agencies, movements, and trends in recreation, with an analysis of the present situation and principles for planning recreational programs. Lengthy bibliography.
- Toward Better Schools for All Children Thru Federal Aid*. Washington 6, D. C.: National Education Assn., 1201 16th St., N. W. 1949. 32 pp. A lecture guide to accompany a filmstrip of 55 frames on standard 35-mm. film which may be obtained on loan from state education associations or by purchase at one dollar from the NEA. A brief of facts and figures showing the need for Federal aid to education and the way it will function if enacted.
- Trends in City School Organization*. Washington, D. C.: Research Division, NEA, 1201 16th St., N. W., Feb., 1949. 39 pp. 50c. A study of organizational patterns, policies, practices, special programs, specialized schools, calendars, schedules, and size of schools and classes during the years 1938 to 1948, with significant comparisons indicative of trends.
- UNESCO. Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Documents. U. S. Gov. Print. Off. 1949. \$2.50 per 100. A folder that tells what UNESCO is, what it does, and what you can do to help.
- The United States and the United Nations*. Washington, D. C.: Supt. of Doc., U. S. Gov. Print. Off. 1948. 359 pp. 60c. The second annual report by the President to Congress on the participation of the United States in the activities of the United Nations during the year 1947.
- Voting and Membership in the United Nations*. Washington, D. C.: Supt. of Doc., U. S. Gov. Print. Off. 1949. 34 pp. 15c. Addresses of Benjamin V. Cohen before the Political Committee on "The Membership Problem" and "United States Position on the Principle of Unanimity."

What Are the Facts About the New Record Developments? Bridgeport, Conn.: Columbia Records, Inc. 1949. A statement to the press by Edward Wallerstein, Chairman of the Board of Columbia Records.

WILLIAMS, G. D. *A Marine's Legacy*. New York: The William Frederick Press, 313 W. 35th St. 1949. 43 pp. \$1.00. A collection of thoughts of great men for centuries past on the stupidity of war.

WOODIN, J. C. *Home Mechanics*. Bloomington, Ill.: McKnight and McKnight, 109-111 West Market St. 1949. 128 pp. \$1.25. Specific instruction on how to repair, adjust, and care properly for home appliances and equipment. Helpful suggestions on safety precautions. Illustrated.

World Confidence and the Reduction of Armed Forces: The American Objective. Washington, D. C.: Office of Pub. Affairs, Div. of Publications, Dept. of State. 1948. 14 pp. Remarks by Warren R. Austin, U. S. Delegate to the Third Session of the General Assembly of the U. N. in Paris on Oct. 12, 1948.

Received Too Late to Be Classified BOOKS

ADLER, ALEXANDRA. *Guiding Human Misfits*. New York 16: Philosophy Library. 1948. 114 pp. \$2.75. This book is intended as a guide for those who come in contact with the misfits and failures of human life—personalities at odds with reality and in need of sympathy, understanding, and guidance. The author's ideas here set forth, in the light of her own clinical experience, follow closely those which were laid down by her father, Alfred Adler, the founder of individual psychology. She herself has specialized in neurology, psychiatry, and psycho-therapy, both in America and abroad.

BENET, LAURA. *Barnum's First Circus*. New York 16: Dodd, Mead and Company. 1949. 240 pp. \$2.50. Laura Benet says that the impetus for these very readable stories came originally from a young friend of hers to whom she told tales by the fire at night. He always begged for a "decent one about a hero." That is exactly what she presents in these live yarns. Two of them are based on the history of St. Augustine, the fascinating old Spanish town from which the author's ancestors came. Another is an amusing account of what happened when a certain aspiring young artist named William Turner used his barber father's shaving brush to paint a picture! Still another is the rousing adventure of a brave boy with the naturalist Audubon, fighting a cutthroat crowd on the Ohio River.

BLANSHARD, PAUL. *American Freedom and Catholic Power*. Boston 8: The Beacon Press. 1949. 350 pp. \$3.50. The author presents, as he calls it, a contemporary review. He discusses the cultural, political, and economic policies of the rulers of the Catholic church.

BROWNELL, C. L. *Principles of Health Education Applied*. New York 18: McGraw-Hill Book Co. 1949. 382 pp. \$3.75. This text presents the fundamentals of health education in schools, colleges, and communities. It considers the economic, political, and social forces which explain developments in health education and the probable alignment of these forces in predicting future developments. Recent developments in health education are covered. There is also an analysis of health problems facing American democracy. Among the important topics cov-

ered are the dependence of school health upon health activities properly belonging to official, voluntary, and private agencies in the community; the organization and conduct of school-health councils; education of the handicapped in its relationship to health education; school feeding as an educational experience; health and safety instruction; relationships between health education and physical education; the need for improved professional preparation for health specialists, administrators, and allied personnel. The material in this book has been tested over a 10-year period with more than 1000 students consisting mostly of health educators, physicians, nurses, home economists, physical educators, and teachers of social science.

CARTER, R. G. *Teen-Age Animal Stories*. New York 10: Lantern Press. 1949. 252 pp. \$2.50. Here is a new collection of animal stories, specially prepared for the growing-up-age. While most of the stories deal with domestic animals, there are several about wild ones, too. But in every case the animals are familiar to the reader and the incidents are within the experience and ken of the age group for which this book is intended.

COLLETTE, ELIZABETH, et al. *Writers in America*. Boston 17: Ginn and Company. 1949. 631 pp. \$3.20. The list of authors whose finest work is represented here reads like an honor roll of the most gifted figures in American literature. Here are thrills and inspiration, humor and pathos, absorbing revelations of human character—blended in a fascinating collection of prose and poetry that creates a craving for more of the best in literary fare. The selections are grouped chronologically under special headings. Each of the chronological sections of the book is introduced by an interesting review of its historical, social, and literary backgrounds. The explanatory comment which prefaces every selection is very helpful to the student. The work of each author is a unit, and so is each selection. Every author's work is kept together—not scattered under types of writing. As a different type appears, attention is called to it, and it is studied. Regardless of their chronological arrangement in the book, the selections can easily be studied, if the teacher prefers, according to their type, their theme, or on the basis of student experience. The modern literature selections are grouped according to theme.

Throughout the book, emphasis is placed on getting the student to think about what he has just read and its relationship to the life he knows. Following each selection are questions on its content and the author's purpose in writing as he did. These thought-inducing questions ask *why* and *how* much more often than *who* and *when*. Every selection is accompanied by footnotes that explain obscure passages and unfamiliar words, and the notes are so written that they fit into the context. There are short biographies of the writers at the end of the book, most of them illustrated with the authors' portraits, a cyclopedia of interesting information on matters not explained in the text notes, and an index.

COLLETTE, ELIZABETH, et al. *Writers in England*. Boston 17: Ginn and Company. 1949. \$3.20. This text and its study aids are designed to do four things: (1) help improve the student's reading ability; (2) broaden and deepen his knowledge of human nature and society; (3) provide worth-while experiences with and through literature; and (4) inculcate the habit of reading. Like the preced-

ing anthology of American literature, *Writers in England* is supplied with study helps. In addition to the historical and social outlines, the explanatory comments and footnotes accompanying every selection, the text contains study questions that make the student think about what he has read and suggestions for further reading. At the end of the book are brief biographies of the writers, while a cyclopedia of pertinent information throws further light on matters not fully explored in the text notes. Each author's selections are grouped together. Different types of writing are commented upon and studied as they appear. Although the selections are arranged chronologically, they can be readily studied according to type, theme, or on the basis of student experience, as the teacher wishes.

COOPER, A. C., editor. *Modern Short Stories*. New York 10: Globe Book Co. 1949. 384 pp. A collection of 16 short stories: *The Milk Pitcher*; *Arkansas*; *The Face of the Poor*; *Weep No More, My Lady*; *Another Brought Gifts*; *The Doll*; *The Chief Operator*; *Uncle Hyacinth*; *England to America*; *Ultima Thule*; *All on a Winter's Night*; *Turkey Red*; *The Foreigner*; *Corporal Hardy*; *Rodney*; and *Sleet Storm*.

A *Co-operative Study of the Public Schools, Lincoln, Nebraska*. Lincoln: Board of Education. 1947. 913 pp. This represents the combined efforts of administrators, teachers, noncertificated employees, and the Study staff as well as representatives of the lay public. The Study was started in 1945; editing was completed by the end of 1946. It presents a comprehensive picture of the Lincoln schools and evaluates the program with the view to pointing out where improvements can be made. Broad areas covered include: school administration, finance, business procedures, the physical plant, personnel, elementary and secondary education, guidance, health and physical education, vocational education, and adult education.

DEERING, IVAH. *Stormy Petrel*. Philadelphia: Dorrance and Co. 1949. 140 pp. \$2.00. This is a collection of poems that reflect the author's interest in all types of people and her reaction to all that concerns the welfare of the human race. They are poems of joy, love of nature and humanity, tolerance, and the finer things of life.

FLOHERTY, J. J. *Shooting the News*. Philadelphia 5: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1949. 160 pp. \$2.50. In this book the author presents the thrills and triumphs of the newsman's career. The stories he tells come first hand from the men who lived them, and he too has felt the fervor of the newsman when the big story breaks and the icy finality of the harassed editor's "Get the pictures!" when a deadline is but a few hours away. Many of the tales of high adventure in this book have never been told outside newspaper and newsreel circles. They illustrate graphically the excitement, the expectancy, and often the hardships in the lives of the men who "shoot the news." Included also are many suggestions to the amateur photographer whose timely shots of news events or human interest subjects may have a ready sale to newspapers, news agencies, and magazines. This is a career book with valuable hints on timing, editing, and processing of news and newsreel photography. It explains the mysterious wire-photo and radio-photo by which photographs are dispatched with the speed of light to newspapers all over the world.

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HAWKINS, G. E., and TATE, GLADYS. *Your Mathematics*. Chicago 11: Scott, Foresman and Company. 1948. 502 pp. \$2.20. This ninth-grade general mathematics book includes mathematical content both for those students rounding out their mathematics studies and for those preparing for advanced courses. Among the topics covered are a review of arithmetic fundamentals, business mathematics, and elementary concepts of algebra, geometry, and trigonometry, all integrated and taught on a mature level. Stress is also given to problem-solving techniques that can carry over into real-life situations and to practice in quantitative thinking. In addition, the text has a number of features that help to make the teaching and learning job easier and surer. Among these are visual aids that help to make meaning clearer; a built-in four-step teaching and learning method for introducing all new topics; and early presentation of difficult topics to afford opportunity for maintenance and standardized self-testing drills and inventory, diagnostic, and unit tests. Self-help review sections are there for those who need them. A progress chart accompanying the self-testing drills serves to motivate student interest in achievement. An 160-page *Teacher's Guidebook*, free to teachers, accompanies the text.

HUDNUT, E. A. *You Can Always Tell a Freshman*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Co. 1949. 180 pp. \$2.50. Getting the college-bound girl off to the right start on the "four best years of her life"—and making sure that she misses none of it—is the aim of this volume. In witty, colloquial style, the author tells the freshman just what to expect, starting with such big issues as that fateful meeting with the new roommate. She considers the serious side of college: how to arrange study schedules and habits, preparations for exams, faculty contacts, health problems, finances, making friends, joining a sorority. The ten "Thou-Shalt-Nots" for dormitory life are a decalogue for popularity. "The Moonlight and Butterflies Department" gives advice on men and dating. In the final chapter, called "What Are You Here For?" the author sums up the lasting values of the college experience.

LEYSON, B. W. *Modern Wonders*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Co. 1949. 216 pp. \$3.50. In this atomic era do you understand how such revolutionary developments as atomic fission, robot planes, radar, jet propulsion, and television in full color actually work? This book explains all these modern wonders—and many more—in simple, nontechnical language. Over fifty photographs and diagrams clarify the explanations of these fascinating developments, the majority of which are vital factors in our national defense, as well as having important nonmilitary applications. Ten years ago these amazing and portentous developments would have seemed fantastic. Today nearly all are in regular use. And, as Captain Leyson explains them, the workings of these modern marvels prove easy to follow. Where various models have been developed in individual fields, he discusses their relative advantages and disadvantages. His account of these revolutionary new projects, while conservative and scientifically accurate, provide amazing glimpses into the future of our technical age.

McKOWN, H. C. *A Boy Grows Up*. New York 18: McGraw-Hill Book Co. 1949. 349 pp. \$2.40. This new book is a complete revision of the earlier edition of *A Boy Grows Up*, offering six new chapters, entirely new illustrations and revised bibli-

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McMEEKIN, I. M. *Kentucky Derby Winner*. Philadelphia 6: David McKay Company. 1949. 272 pp. \$2.50. This is the story of Aristides, the first Kentucky Derby winner. It is also the story of another hero, a boy, Jackie.

MONTGOMERY, E. R. *The Story Behind Modern Books*. New York 16: Dodd, Mead and Company. 1949. 220 pp. \$2.50. This is a collection of live accounts of the people who wrote many of our best recent books for young readers and of the diverse backgrounds, influences, special circumstances, and personal preferences and fancies which made them write the books they did. The writers range from the Petershams of picture book fame, through Hugh Lofting and Robert Lawson, Mary O'Hara and Phil Stong, Carl Sandburg and Cornelia Meigs to Esther Forbes, Pulitzer Prize winner.

MUDD, DOROTHY. *A Core Program Grows*. Bel Air, Maryland: Board of Education. 1949. 148 pp. This is a report of the junior high-school program which is being developed in Hartford County, Maryland. Based on the "core program" idea, it is being developed to provide the freedom and flexibility which are essential in ascertaining and attempting to satisfy the important immediate and future needs of youth. The book contains a statement of philosophy, a report of procedures and techniques, including pupil-teacher and home-school program planning, samples of curriculum materials and materials of instruction, and a preliminary appraisal of progress.

OWEN, FRANK, editor. *Teen-Age Winter Sports Stories*. New York 10: Lantern Press. 1949. 256 pp. \$2.50. Here is a collection of 16 stimulating stories of winter sports for boys and girls, each brimming with wholesome adventure and the qualities that make for fine character building. This book deals with the sports, indoor as well as outdoor, that are popular in cold weather time.

OWEN, R. B. *Caribbean Caravel*. New York 16: Dodd, Mead and Company. 1949. 232 pp. \$2.75. This is the zestful account of the travels of two American boys to twenty ports in the Caribbean. Just as in her *Denmark Caravan* where the author delighted young readers with an intimate glimpse of that far-away Scandinavian country where she was United States Minister and made its people, legends, and history a fascinating reality to them, so in *Caribbean Caravel* she has given them a very real voyage among the West Indian Islands, with their colorful peoples, unusual flora and fauna, and adventurous, glamorous history. Sailing on a freight ship among tropical islands, peering into the green lanes of mysterious jungles, and hunting for pirate treasures in the Spanish Main, the stuff of daydreams is woven into a factual narrative.

RICH, L. D. *Start of the Trail*. Philadelphia 5: J. B. Lippincott Company. 1949. 216 pp. \$2.50. Bill Gordon, son of a game warden, is the proudest young man in the

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SHIPPEN, K. B. *The Bright Design*. New York 17: Viking Press. 1949. 207 pp. \$3.50. This book tells the fascinating story of electrical energy and the men who have helped to unfold its secrets. Starting in the twelfth century with Peter Peregrinus whose interest in lodestones led him to manufacture a compass and continuing through to Lise Meitner and Niels Bohr, whose work with nuclear fission made possible the atomic bomb, Miss Shippen has given us a colorful pageant of the men and women from all countries whose curiosity and study not only defined laws and theories but also caused enormous changes in the physical and social world around them.

SPALDING, W.B. and MONTAGUE, J.R. *Alcohol and Human Affairs*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Company. 1949. 225 pp. \$1.64. This is an interesting and enlightening treatment of a serious and complex social and public health problem. The style of the book is simple, straightforward, and adapted to the average high-school student. The tone is calmly objective; scientific in its presentation of facts and statistics, restrained and temperate in its discussion of the social, medical, and legal considerations involved. Controversial issues are handled by an impartial presentation of the main arguments of all sides. The book is comprehensive in its handling of the subject matter. Every aspect of the use of alcohol as a beverage is investigated—the historical, physiological, economic, legal, and personal being covered according to their relative importance. The statistics, which are plentiful, are arranged in meaningful charts and tables and appear to be the latest and most accurate available. Organized by a skilled educator, the book breaks the problem down into a number of chapter divisions. Each chapter is summarized by a final paragraph or two and followed by questions and suggestions for further inquiry upon the part of the students. An appendix is devoted to tobacco and narcotics.

TITMUSS, F. H. *Encyclopedia of World Timbers*. New York 16: Philosophical Library. 1949. 164 pp. \$4.75. The science of timber technology first came into prominence largely as a result of the investigations made by American research workers in the early years of the first World War. Before this time, the normal wood consumer's knowledge of his material was chiefly empirical, and the results achieved by the scientists were neither appreciated nor fully understood by the practical man. Since that time an extensive literature has grown up regarding timber of all species. Much of it has been of a "popular" nature, but some of the most important facts regarding correct utilization and identification are dealt with in books confined to the study of woods of a specific variety or some particular geographic region. This volume has been designed, therefore, to serve as a connecting link between the laboratory worker and the man in the workshop and to be a handy reference book for all whose work necessitates a real understanding of timber.

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- ADAMS, R. J. et al. *A Way to Good English*. Book III. New York 16: The Odyssey Press, Inc., 386 Fourth Ave. 1949. 218 pp. \$1.12. A manual and drill book, "The Precise Word," which is third in a series and is preceded by "The Complete Sentence" and "The Correct Form." This third book draws on literary masters and departs from strictly objective exercises.
- AETA Reports. Ann Arbor, Mich.: American Educational Theatre Assn., Dept. of Speech, Univ. of Mich. 1949. 26 pp. Reports of the various standing committees to the national convention held in Washington, D. C., in December, 1948. Supplement of extracts of papers on the high-school theater, its acting and directing, technical production, playwriting, and criticism.
- Annual Report of the School Department*. Framingham, Mass.: Board of Education. 1949. 56 pp. A report for the calendar year 1948. Financial report with reports of administrators and department supervisors—art, guidance, music, physical education. Also contains reports of the school physician and nurse.
- BARTLETT, ALMA J. *Spanish to English*. El Paso, Texas: Board of Education. 1949. 261 pp. \$2.50. An aid in bilingual teaching prepared by a teacher from years of continually revised daily plans. Recommended for students of native Spanish language background.
- Better Utilization of Milk*. Washington, D. C.: Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, 1201 Conn. Ave., N.W. 1949. 76 pp. A dairy manufacturing specialist discusses the improvement of milk processing and preservation in milk-deficient areas and the increased utilization of dairy by-products.
- Britain Speeds the Plow*. New York 20: British Information Services, 30 Rockefeller Plaza. 1949. 48 pp. The land and equipment of the British farmer, the wartime changes and the goal for 1952, and the assistance the farmer gets—economic, labor, research, technical, and education—are told through an illustrated story.
- Choosing the Superintendent of Schools*. Washington, D. C.: American Assn. of School Administrators, NEA, 1201 16th St., N. W. 1949. 12 pp. 25c. Pools the experiences of many school boards in finding and keeping good superintendents.
- Cultural Relations Between the United States and the Soviet Union*. Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Doc. 1949. 25 pp. 10c. A detailed account of the frustrated attempts of the United States to effect a cultural exchange with Russia.
- DAVIS, H. J. *The Student Projectionist*. Richmond 21, Va.: Motion Picture Supply Co., 720 N. Cleveland St. 1949. 11 pp. 10c. A concise handbook for those students entrusted with responsibility for operation and care of audio-visual equipment.
- Economic and Social Problems in the United Nations*. Washington, D. C.: Office of Public Affairs, Dept. of State. 1949. 14 pp. A review of the major economic and social issues considered by the various commissions and specialized agencies of the United Nations. The introductory number of a series of basic reports.

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- Education and World Peace.* Lexington, Ky.: Bureau of School Service, College of Educ., Univ. of Ky. Sept., 1948. 123 pp. The proceedings of simultaneous meetings of the Annual Educational Conference of the University of Kentucky and the Kentucky Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools show how Kentucky schools are attacking problems of the postwar period.
- Education for Economic Understanding.* New York 3: The Joint Council on Economic Education, 25 Press Bldg., N. Y. Univ. 1949. 15 pp. A report on the 1948 summer Workshop on Economic Education at New York University and the announcement of the 1949 summer workshop.
- The English Quarterly.* New York 58: Oscar H. Fidell, Editor, Theodore Roosevelt High School, 500 East Fordham Road. Winter, 1949. 32 pp. This issue of the official publication of the New York City Association of Teachers of English contains a symposium on how to make the English program effective for the general student, reviews of professional books and articles on live topics such as the modern novel, instruction by broadcasts, and the application of English to the work-a-day world.
- Evaluating Maryland's Public School Program.* Baltimore, Maryland: State Dept. of Educ. 1949. 31 pp. The program for the Maryland Educational Conference in Baltimore from April 28 to April 30, 1949.
- Expanding World Trade.* Washington, D. C.: Office of Public Affairs, Dept. of State. 1949. 8 pp. A summary of U. S. policy and program of foreign trade.
- FAO Oilseed Mission for Venezuela.* Washington, D. C.: Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, 1201 Conn. Ave., N. W. 1949. 83 pp. \$1.00. A survey of wild and cultivated palms and oilseed crops and the processing facilities.
- The Far Eastern Commission.* Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Doc. 1949. 65 pp. 20c. A public report of the Far Eastern Commission covering the period July 10, 1947, through Dec. 23, 1948. Concerns such things as interim import-export policies for Japan, reduction of Japanese industrial war potential, and travel of Japanese commercial representatives.
- FLEISCHER, NAT. *Jack Dempsey.* Philadelphia 6: Bantam Books, 1223 Ledger Bldg. 1949. 211 pp. 35c. The life story of the rise of a penniless mine mucker.
- Future Teachers of America Yearbook.* Washington, D. C.: National Education Assn., 1201 16th St., N. W. 1949. 228 pp. \$1.00. A definition of education, the history of the NEA, professional code, biographies of great teachers, and a directory of FTA chapters in addition to a statement of FTA objectives.
- Garden Issue.* Lansing, Mich.: State Dept. of Health. March, 1949. 60 pp. An issue of *Michigan Public Health* devoted entirely to home and school gardens and their healthful values.
- HENDERSON, J. L. *UNESCO in Focus.* New York 10: Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith, 212 Fifth Ave. 46 pp. 25c. Foundations for international amity must be laid early in the school and family and developed in adult life by projects that evoke a sympathetic attitude and co-operation among peoples.
- HULL, J. DAN. *A Primer of Life Adjustment Education.* Chicago 37: American Technical Society, Drexel Ave. at 58th St. 1949. 30 pp. 45c. The many patterns of life adjustment education, which recognizes educationally neglected youth

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KETTELKAMP, G. C. *Which Step First?* Urbana, Ill.: College of Education, Univ. of Ill. 1949. 40 pp. Research undertaken to facilitate guidance in planning the sequence in which foreign languages can most profitably be studied.

McCAHAN, DAVID, and HAMBURG, MORRIS. *College and University Courses in Insurance and Related Subjects.* Philadelphia: S. S. Huebner Foundation for Insurance Education, Univ. of Pa., 3924 Walnut St. 1949. 51 pp. Single copy free; additional copies, \$1.00. A nation-wide survey of insurance instruction in universities and colleges of the United States. Contains a summary of *Educational and Training Activities of Insurance Companies and Associations* by Richard de R. Kip for the Insurance Institute of America.

The Meaning of the North Atlantic Pact. Washington, D. C.: Supt. of Doc. March 27, 1949. 5 pp. 5c. The text of Secretary of State Acheson's address delivered on March 18, 1949, when the text of the North Atlantic Pact was made public.

MILLER, J. W., JR. *Causes of Industrial Peace Under Collective Bargaining.* Washington 6, D.C.: Nat. Planning Assn. 1949. 72 pp. \$1.00. An analysis of 15 case studies of labor-management in the steel industry.

Occupational Outlook Handbook. Washington, D. C.: Supt. of Doc. 1949. 454 pp. \$1.75. Employment information on major occupations for use in guidance. Classified, charted, illustrated.

Offerings in Guidance Work in Colleges and Universities, Summer 1949. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Office of Education. 1949. 46 pp. A state-by-state analysis of institutions, dates, courses, divisions, and instructors, compiled for ready use of those desiring study in guidance and personnel work.

Our School Studies. Washington, D. C.: National Education Assn., 1201 16th St., N.W. 1949. 15pp. The Executive Secretary's annual report of the profession to the public. Emphasizes the constantly changing curriculum and techniques to meet the needs of American children. Shows advancement despite adverse conditions. Poster—"The Universal Declaration of Human Rights." Lake Success, N. Y.: Dept. of Public Information, United Nations. 1949. 30" x 40". Colored. The declaration adopted by the UN General Assembly in Paris on Dec. 10, 1948.

Publications available through the Pan American Union, Division of Education, Washington 6, D. C.:

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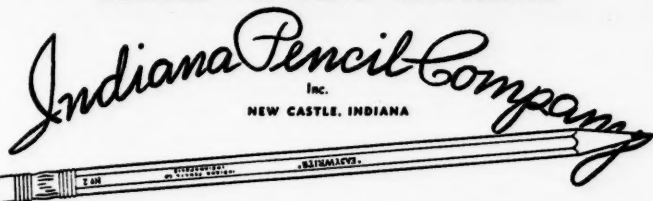
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- Segregation in Washington*. Chicago 15: The National Committee on Segregation in the Nation's Capitol, 4901 Ellis Ave. 1948. 96 pp. 85c. A summary of the research findings of the committee which investigated the conditions and causes of segregation in Washington. Text was prepared by Kenesaw M. Landis, columnist.
- Semiannual Report to the Congress*. Washington, D. C.: Advisory Commission on Information. March, 1949. 74 pp. Programs and activities carried on under Public Law 402, the United States Information and Educational Exchange Act of 1948, with appraisals of their effectiveness and recommendations for improvement.
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- State Child Labor Standards*. Washington, D. C.: Bureau of Labor Standards, U. S. Dept. of Labor. 1949. 182 pp. A state-by-state summary of laws affecting the employment of minors. Contains general information on provisions concerning: minimum age for employment, maximum hours and restrictions on employment, authorized agencies for enforcement of child labor laws, status of illegally employed minors under workmen's compensation acts, and requirements for school attendance.
- Survey '49. How Do We Stand This Year?* New York 20: British Information Services, 30 Rockefeller Plaza. 1949. 47 pp. A popular version of the official *Economic Survey for 1949* being distributed in Britain to explain the country's economic problems and how they are being met. Food, jobs, clothes, homes, and prices in understandable terms.
- Teaching Units in American Literature*. Urbana, Ill.: Ill. Assn. of Tchrs. of Eng. March, 1949. 24 pp. Effective units for stimulating growth of students in American ideals, based upon American literature.
- TETENS, T. H. *Know Your Enemy*. New York: Society for the Prevention of World War III, Inc., 515 Madison Ave. 1944. 127 pp. A compilation of speeches, articles, memoirs, and pamphlets, which judge the native post-war leadership in Germany.
- United Nations Library Services*. Lake Success, N. Y.: Dept. of Public Information, United Nations. 1949. 19pp. A description of the functions of the U. N. Library.
- The Unused Ally*. Chicago, Ill.: Nation's Schools. Dec. 1948. 11 pp. An interview with Earl Bunting, Managing Director of the National Assn. of Manufacturers, on what industry expects, likes, and dislikes in education.
- WILSON, E. R., and GRANT, B. S. *Some Questions and Comments about the North Atlantic Treaty and Accompanying Rearmament Program*. Washington, D. C.: The Friends Committee on National Legislation, 1000 Eleventh St., N. W. 1949. 32 pp. 25c. Intended as a basis for discussion. Contains quotations and references within each brief discussion of pertinent topics.

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